

***Banking Problems that Led to Formulation of the
Federal Reserve Act of 1913***

An Honors Thesis (ECON 492)

by

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Purpose

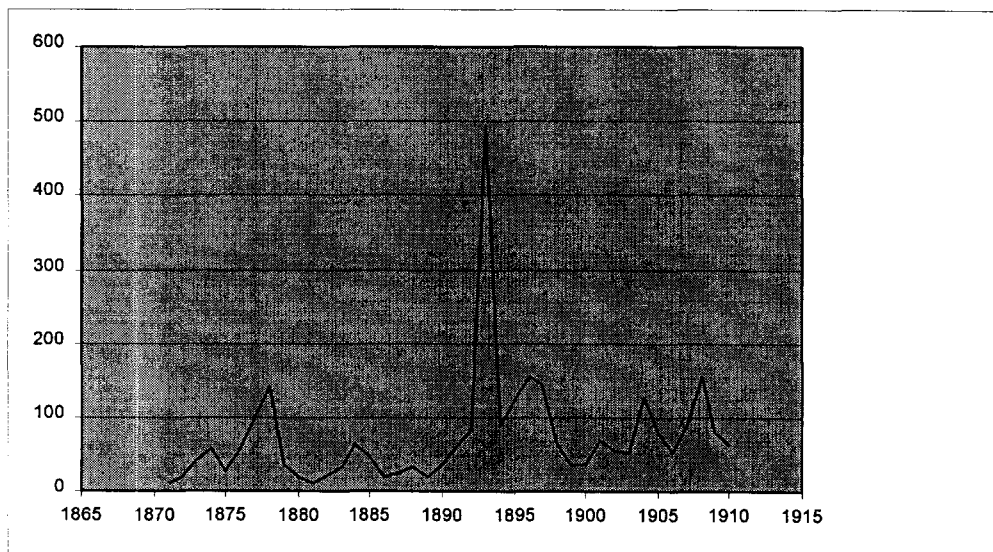
The purpose of this paper is to investigate the events and problems of the banking system that led to the Federal Reserve Act of 1913. The paper examines the history of banking in the United States and identifies some of the more significant factors that persuaded American bankers, politicians, academicians, and others that reform of the banking system was necessary. A discussion of the banking panic of 1907 illustrates some of these factors. Finally, the basic provisions of the Federal Reserve Act of 1913 are presented and discussed.

Introduction

Pre-twentieth century America had a fear of centralized power and a distrust of moneyed interests. This dominated contemporary politics and, consequently, prevented the creation of a central bank which appeared to be the embodiment of those fears. However, the existence of a fractional reserve banking system without a lender of last resort that could provide reserves to the banking system in the event of a banking panic was a serious problem. Nationwide banking panics in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries were frequent (occurring in 1837, 1857, 1873, 1884, 1893, and 1907). The severe panic of 1907 convinced many bankers, politicians, academicians, and others that a central bank was necessary to prevent future banking panics and to bring order to financial markets.

The Federal Reserve Act of 1913 was the product of a long and sometimes bitter political struggle which resulted in a compromise. As many contemporary and modern students of the history of banking in the United States point out, the Act was a response to a troubled banking sector which was characterized by financial panics and general instability of banks. Bank suspensions were a common occurrence and especially numerous after major banking panics as indicated by the following data from the "Historical Statistics of the United States" (pg. 636):

Bank Suspensions: 1871-1910



For instance, the panic of 1893 caused 496 bank suspensions that year and shook the banking system for the next five years.

The provisions of the Federal Reserve Act of 1913 cannot be fully understood without studying the nature of banking prior to the Act, the contemporary problems and issues that were pressing on the various stakeholders, or the banking reform movement of the early 1900s. Consequently, this paper will examine the history and problems of banking in the United States under the National Banking Act of 1864, the banking panic of 1907 and the problems it caused, and the reform process that led to the Federal Reserve Act of 1913.

Literature Review

The history of banking in the United States has generated considerable interest. The following is a selected review that focuses on discussions of banking problems that led directly to the formation of the Federal Reserve.

Bray Hammond conducted a penetrating study of banking in the United States prior to 1865 in "Banks and Politics in America From the Revolution to the Civil War." In this study, he provided an interesting discussion of the American fear of central banks which delayed the banking reform for some time after the weaknesses of the banking system became apparent. He contends that pre-twentieth century America had a fear of centralized power which was evident in the significant influence of Jacksonians, supporters of President Andrew Jackson, who stood behind "the humbly born and rugged individualists who were gaining fortunes by their own toil and sweat, or wits, [who] were still simple Americans..., anti-monopolistic, anti-governmental, but fraught with the spirit of enterprise" (Hammond, pg. 328). They attacked the Bank of the United States because they believed it was a symbol of oppression, tyranny, monied power, aristocracy, wealth, privilege, and monopoly. The attack emphasized the Wall Street businessmen's jealousy of the federal Bank, their dislike of the federal Bank's restraint on bank credit, the Bank's interference with states' rights, the popular identification of the Bank with the aristocracy of business and the agrarian antipathy toward the federal Bank (Hammond, pg. 329). Thus, in 1836, President Jackson, the leader of the Jacksonian trend, allowed the charter of the Second Bank of the United States to expire. "Destruction of the Bank ended federal regulation of bank credit and shifted the money center of the country from Chestnut Street to Wall Street" (Hammond, pg. 329).

The lack of organization within the banking system was one of the most important problems prior to the Federal Reserve Act of 1913. Thibaut de Saint Phalle, in "The Federal Reserve, An Intentional Mystery," described the banking system after the demise of the Second Bank of the United States as being a period of chaos. Thousands of banks were issuing thousands of different types of bank notes, making the methods of payments difficult and inefficient. Phalle pointed out some of the most significant characteristics of the lack of organization. They included scattered reserves over a large area which prevented quick pooling of funds in times of panic, lack of central clearing facilities which hindered a quick transfer of funds, and absence of any lender of last resort.

Pyramiding of reserves was a major problem associated with the lack of organization and was also identified by Phalle. However, Oliver M.W. Sprague provides an interesting and more detailed discussion of this subject in the "History of Crises under the National Banking System." He concluded that allowing banks to keep their reserves on deposit in other banks, perhaps in other cities, caused the banking system to fail in meeting the severe strain of crises. He indicated that the banks were always weaker than they appeared and, therefore, less able to cope with financial difficulties.

Among the most important conclusions drawn by Sprague was his belief that the country was in need of a lender of last resort. He believed that all the banking panics under the national banking system would have been easier to manage if the New York banks were able to increase loans to meet demands of depositors for money. His discussion of the usefulness of clearinghouses supports this belief. After an extensive study of several banking panics during the latter part of the nineteenth century, Sprague concluded that banks' organized effort through

clearinghouses made financial crises less severe. He also recognized that such organized effort was not always easy to achieve due to each bank's desire to keep its independence and sovereignty. Thus, in his opinion, creation of a lender of last resort was possible only by imposing a central authority that would induce the interbank cooperation in times of crises as well as oversee the banking structure during normal times.

Another major problem of banking under the national banking system was the problem of an "inelastic supply of currency." In "A Monetary History of the United States," Friedman and Schwartz explain that because of the banks' fractional reserves, any overall attempt by the public to raise its currency holdings would drain bank reserves which in turn would cause banks to contract their outstanding liabilities by a multiple of the loss in reserves. This led to some bank suspensions and threatened a chain reaction resulting in a bank panic. The two authors also explain the contemporary view that the money stock should conform to the needs of trade. The view was that the supply of money should increase during good economic periods in order to facilitate the increased economic activity and should decrease when the economy was not performing so well – it should be elastic. Friedman and Schwartz claim that this view was one of the most dominant considerations during the banking reform process of the early 1900s and is reflected in its incorporation in the Federal Reserve Act of 1913.

As Friedman and Schwartz indicate, the weaknesses of the banking system were recognized in the contemporary banking literature. However, the fear of centralized banking accompanied by various political interpretations of the existing problems delayed banking reform. The dramatic experience of the banking panic of 1907 induced many Americans to put their fears and disagreements aside and create a banking system that would foster and correspond

to the country's economic growth and the need for a more stable and cooperative banking environment.

Nature of Banking in the United States Prior to the Federal Reserve Act of 1913

Between 1836 and 1864

The fear of centralized banking that was present in the United States during this period was the motivation behind President Andrew Jackson's decision to allow the charter of the Second Bank of the United States to expire in 1836, eliminating any central authority overseeing the banking structure. By the 1860s, the United States banking system consisted of thousands of individual banks each issuing its own notes. The notes varied in value and depended on the financial strength and trustworthiness of the issuing bank. This required some means of clearing the notes of different banks. Some larger banks attempted to facilitate clearing by requiring smaller banks to maintain redemption deposits with them. Banks which chose not to maintain such deposits ran the risk of having all of their notes returned for redemption in specie. This was a powerful force restricting the issue of unsound notes

National Banking System

An important step in banking reform was achieved by the National Banking Act of 1864. The Act was an attempt to organize American banking through the formation of national banks. The provisions of this Act were modeled after those of the New York State Banking Act of 1838 and the Louisiana State Banking Act of 1842.

The underlining principles of the National Banking Act were almost the same as those of the New York State Banking Act of 1838 (Hammond, pg. 562, 727-728). Prior to the New York Act, a special state charter was required for bank organization. As a result, monopoly and special

favoritism were widespread, and it was felt that competition would relieve these problems. The act of 1838 provided the State of New York with a banking law embodying the principle of competition, known as *free banking*. The National Banking Act extended the principle of *free banking* to the entire nation. Any group of five or more people who could meet the minimum capital requirements contained in the law were granted federal charters. Generally, applicants had to demonstrate some need for a bank and to possess the proper character and intentions.

The Louisiana law required all banks to separate long- and short- term loans, while the issuance of long-term debt was restricted. Short-term loans, usually ninety-day commercial paper, were not renewable and sanctions were imposed against those who failed to pay their debts or who required extended periods to liquidate their loans. The provisions of the National Banking Act were not as strict as those of the Louisiana Act. However, it did prohibit banks from engaging in certain activities. The real estate investments by banks, for instance, were allowed only for their own needs for banking facilities while all other long-term non-commercial operations were forbidden.

The National Banking Act authorized national banks to issue a new type of bank note secured by United States government bonds. Issuing banks deposited the required amount of government bonds with the Comptroller of the Currency, a new agency created by the Act to oversee national banks. The Act limited the issue of notes by a national bank to its paid-in capital. This provision was intended to prevent banks from using specie to buy state government bonds on margin and then using the bonds to issue notes equal to the par value of the bonds. The newly-issued notes would then be used to complete the payment for bonds purchased on credit. The surplus of note issue could be used to repeat the same process over again. This practice

enabled banks to maintain a circulation equal to twenty or thirty times their paid-in specie capital (Hammond, pp. 619-620).

The National Banking Act also attempted to standardize the reserves held against bank deposits by making them uniform with respect to the size and location of the national banks. In most states, reserves were either unregulated or low percentages of total deposits were required. Some banks had so little specie in their reserves that they were unable to meet even the slightest increase in public's demand for currency. With respect to location of a national bank, reserve requirements were highest for banks in New York City and lowest for country banks. Banks outside New York were permitted to count their deposits in other banks as part of their reserves.

Despite the fact that banks were required to have reserves, often the amounts held in bank vaults or on deposit with other banks were not available or sufficient to meet sudden demands without falling below the required reserve minimum. This was the case because banks tended to loan out as much money as they could, thus always being near their minimum reserve ratio (*required reserves/total deposits*). Banks were induced by the profit motive to approach their minimum reserves but were forbidden by law to fall below them. Therefore, knowing that the punishment for violations of reserve requirements could be the closure of the bank by the Comptroller of the Currency, banks were forced to contract credit to gain liquidity (to gain necessary cash for payment to demanding depositors) in times of stringency.

A major criticism of the national banking system was that it did not provide a mechanism for interbank cooperation. The only cooperation between the national banks was through the requirement of the National Banking Act that every non-New York bank designate a redemption agent for its notes (a bank willing to exchange its notes for specie) in New York City or some

other large city. This is one of the reasons New York became the primary financial center in the United States, especially because banks in other large cities were required to name their own redemption agents in New York. The requirement lowered the redemption costs to note-holders but it was of very little use in times of crises.

Another important criticism of the National Banking Act was that it did not cover all the existing banks in the United States but only those with national charters. By 1913, the number of state banks was more than twice that of national banks as indicated by the following data from the “Historical Statistics of the United States” (pp. 624, 626, and 630):

<u>Year</u>	<u>No. of national banks</u>	<u>No. of state banks</u>	<u>Total</u>
<i>1913</i>	<i>7,467</i>	<i>19,197</i>	<i>26,664</i>

Note: Number of state banks also includes the private banks because they were not segregated from other banks between 1896 and 1946.

In 1865, Congress attempted to suppress state banks by placing a prohibitive tax on state bank note issues. However, after several years of decline, state banks came to realize that note issues were becoming less important relative to demand deposits as a means of payment. Consequently, state banks continued to occupy an important position in American banking.

Despite its ineffectiveness, the National Banking Act of 1864 determined the nature of banking from 1864 to 1913. Among the most important aspects of the Act are the philosophy of independent unit banks, the type of note issue, and the reserve structure. These aspects composed the core elements of the banking reform discussion in the early 1900s.

Problems of Fractional Reserve Banking Under the National Banking System

The banking problems prior to the Federal Reserve Act of 1913 fall into two categories: (1) problems of organization or lack of it and (2) problems of the inelasticity of note issue. The first problem took many forms including scattered reserves, lack of central check-clearing facilities, and the absence of a lender of last resort. The second problem dealt with the inability of the circulating currency to expand in the event of bank runs.

Organizational Problems

Some organizational features of the National Banking Act prevented smooth operation of the financial system. The national banking system was not really a system at all but rather a loose body of independent banks responsible only to themselves and only for themselves. Such structure prevented any united action among the banks when abnormal conditions prevailed. Therefore, as Thibaut de Saint Phalle points out, excessive individual bank independence played a significant part in the spread of bank panics (pg. 47). In time of panic, each bank scrambled to protect its own liquid position by attempting to collect large amounts of cash in order to resist a run. A run on one bank induced other banks to take a similar defensive approach but the fixed amount of cash in the system necessarily frustrated this effort.

The reserve system written into the National Banking Act was considered defective by many. A pyramiding of reserves was caused by allowing banks to deposit a share of their reserve requirements with banks in major cities but could still list those deposits as reserves. Furthermore, the banks in major cities deposited a share of their reserves with major banks in

New York City. Consequently, the actual level of available reserves was much lower than what it was nominally required. The system was always weaker than it appeared and less able to meet any increase in demand for hand-to-hand currency relative to demand deposits.

Some New York banks, in order to increase their share of interbank deposits, paid interest on demand deposits. This practice appeared to be a source of trouble since reserve deposits became concentrated in a few banks (Sprague, pp. 20-24). As Sprague points out, such banks “were directly responsible for any disturbance in the New York money market, which was due to the use of these funds, and also for any failure to meet demands for their return to banks in the rest of the country” (pg. 20). The banks engaged in this practice were obliged to lend out the money to obtain a return with which to pay the interest. They saw profit opportunities due to return rates exceeding the interest charge they were required to pay to attract deposits and, therefore, profited on the margin between the two rates. The demand deposits obtained in this manner were generally loaned on the stock exchange in the form of call loans. These loans were presumed to be almost perfectly liquid since the funds were available on call.

Often, after a period of stability, banks approached their minimum reserve requirements as they attempted to maximize profits. Because of reserve pyramiding and individual bank isolation during a crisis it became impossible for banks to redeem a large amount of deposits without some credit contraction. This led to two separate problems: (1) a stringency placed on country banks affected all banks because of the fractional reserve system and (2) stringencies tended to snowball since no effective means of interbank cooperation existed. When country banks called deposits from their correspondent banks in cities other than New York, those banks were often forced to call deposits from New York. Banks subject to calls were forced to restrict

credit if they lacked free reserves. They were reluctant to go below their minimum required reserves to meet this sudden demand because of the legal sanctions which might be imposed by the Comptroller of Currency. Unless the circumstances were very severe, banks usually did not violate their reserve requirements. Thus, the only recourse was a credit contraction. The second problem deals with the lack of cooperative arrangement through which strong banks could come to the aid of weaker banks, therefore, stopping the scramble for cash. The reserves were too scattered to be of general use. Instead, in most cases, the panic spread from weaker to stronger banks as the distrust of banks was propagating. Because of the development of clearinghouses, however, things were not quite as bad as they might have been. In both 1873 and 1907, it is probable that the crises would have been worse had not New York banks come to one another's aid. The clearinghouses allowed some cooperation during panics and, therefore, convinced many people that more cooperation would improve the operation of the financial sector.

The typical operations of clearinghouses were to clear checks and drafts and transact other interbank business. However, during crises they took on added importance. In times of stringency, they issued clearinghouse loan certificates based on the assets of member institutions which were used in place of currency in interbank clearings. Thus, bank reserves were increased by the amount of lawful money (gold coins and certificates and silver coins and certificates) ordinarily tied up in clearing procedures. While the loan certificates could not be counted as required reserves, they freed cash by serving as a substitute in interbank payments (Sprague, pp. 45-53).

During the panics of 1873 and 1907, New York banks pooled their reserves to meet the demand for currency. In 1873, they did so by forming the New York Clearing House (on

September 20, 1873) which issued clearinghouse loan certificates. In later years, banks were reluctant to cooperate and they failed to do so in both 1884 and 1893. Pooling, however, was accomplished again in 1907 because of the pressure exerted on New York bankers by J.P.

Morgan, the embodiment of financial power and one of the strongest financiers of the era. The cooperative actions during panics as well as the occasional reluctance with which banks engaged in them impressed many people and, consequently, influenced later banking legislation.

Accompanied by the lack of central check-clearing facilities which hindered the quick transfer of funds among banks in different parts of the country, these events emphasized the need for a central authority to oversee and regulate banking activities.

Fractional Reserves

The second major problem with the banking system prior to 1913 was an inelastic supply of currency or, as Friedman and Schwartz explain, the absence of effective convertibility between currency and deposits (pg. 168). Hand-to-hand currency was composed of national bank notes, U.S. Treasury Notes, gold coins and certificates, silver coin and certificates, and other subsidiary currency. The amount of silver currency, both coin and certificates, was fixed as were U.S. Treasury Notes. Gold coin and certificates were allowed to grow as the amount of monetary gold grew. Subsidiary coins and national bank notes were slightly flexible because they were allowed to grow but still had to conform to the maximum limit under the law. The elasticity problem, however, did not concern the long-run growth of the money supply but rather its short-term expansion and contraction. The problem was that when the demand for loans and currency increased in good economic times, the amount of cash available in the system could not be increased to meet the needs of consumers and businesses. Conversely, the system had no

operating mechanism to shrink the currency supply when the economy was performing poorly (Phalle, pg. 48).

In each crisis, the demand for currency could not be met without drawing down reserves because, in the short run, national banks were not able to expand the supply of national bank notes. In turn, this forced banks to contract their outstanding liabilities by a multiple of the loss in reserves and, therefore, reduced the total amount of money available to be held.

The problems of fractional reserve banking under the national banking system became the dominant issues of banking reform. The inelasticity of the stock of money and the lack of an effective reserve system or mechanism for cooperation began the trend toward a more structured form of organization. This was later opposed by the belief of many Americans in a free and independent banking system. For the purpose of illustrating the problems of the national banking system as well as understanding the motivation for and purpose of the Federal Reserve Act of 1913, the following section briefly examines one of the more important financial crises, the banking panic of 1907.

The Banking Panic of 1907



Bank run

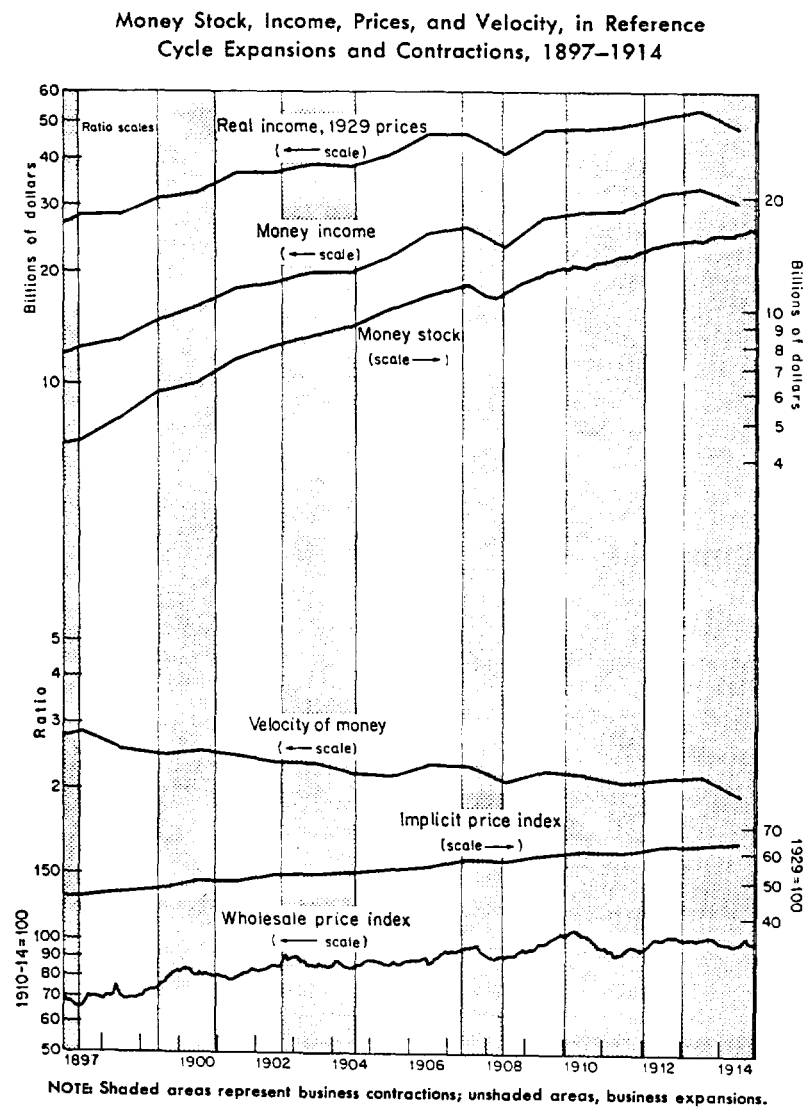
Source: Historical Beginnings...The Federal Reserve

"On extraordinary occasions," wrote David Ricardo, "a general panic may seize the country, when everyone becomes desirous of possessing himself of the precious metals as the most convenient mode of realizing or concealing his property - against such panic banks have no security [under]...any system" (Encyclopedia, pg. 45). In a financial panic, fear leads to sudden and enormous withdrawals of deposits from banks and to wholesale selling of various financial assets for cash. People bail out of a system they fear will crash and, by doing so, either cause the

disaster or enlarge it. A panic is a sudden scramble for liquidity. Unable to sell their assets quickly, banks cannot possibly honor their contractual liabilities during a panic and, therefore, they must default on their debt obligations, causing the banking system to become insolvent. In most instances, banking panics occur at the onset of economic downturns which led to their association with crises and depressions. Generally, banks suspended convertibility of deposits into currency in unison, meaning that they temporarily refused to honor their contractual agreements to redeem their debt for cash on demand. The panic of 1907 followed a pattern similar to other panics.

The decade prior to 1907 was generally very prosperous. A mild two-year economic contraction that ended in 1904 interrupted the advance in mid decade. However, this was followed by a strong expansion that featured industrial growth accompanied by rapid growth of the money stock and an advance in the stock market. By May 1907, the economy reached a cyclical peak and business activity entered a period of contraction which lasted for about a year. These events are reflected by the real and money income curves in the chart on the following page.

Chart 1



Source: *Monetary History of the United States*, pg. 136

Until the beginning of 1907, both curves reflect an upward trend, but as they enter the first quarter of the year, they begin to flatten out and finally turn downward in the second quarter. Similarly, the money stock curve has an upward trend all the way into the second quarter and

then it sharply turns downward. Both price indices, implicit and wholesale, reflect an upward trend in prices until the second quarter, however, the wholesale price index better reflects the fall in prices during the economic downturn than does the implicit price index curve which flattens out during that period.

The economic decline was gentle until October when a panic seized the banks. As a result, banks generally refused to pay out currency or specie to depositors on demand. Not only did banks fail, but the economic contraction intensified. Thus, the banking panic of 1907 divided the economic contraction into two parts. The first part was the period between May and September in which there were no obvious signs of real distress. Prices continued to rise (as indicated by the wholesale price index curve in Chart 1), production in some lines flattened out but did not decline seriously, freight car loadings behaved similarly, bank clearings held fairly steady, no drastic rise in the liabilities of commercial failures, and the only significant change was the reversal in gold movements from net imports to net exports. The second part of the contraction was after the October panic and it showed clear signs of severity. Production, freight car loadings, bank clearings, and the like all declined sharply, while the liabilities of commercial failures increased sharply.

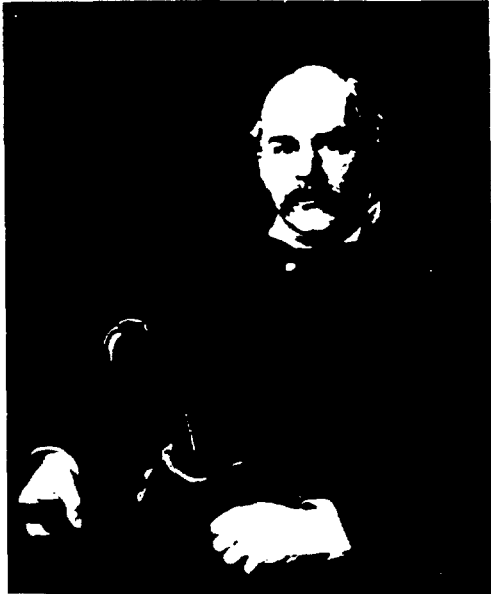
From May until September, some decline in the money stock was evident, but no bank runs occurred during this time. In October, however, banks came under severe pressure. The public ran on them, demanding currency in exchange for deposits. The banks sought to increase their currency holdings to meet their depositors' demands. With both, the public and banks scrambling for liquidity, the total money stock declined by five percent in five months. This is also reflected by the sharp downturn of the money supply curve during the second half of 1907.

in chart 1 on the previous page. Prices collapsed on the stock market as banks called in loans used to finance security holdings.

The first signs of panic surfaced in October 1907. On October 14, five banks which were members of the New York Clearing House and three outside banks required assistance from a group of clearinghouse banks. On October 21, the third largest trust company in New York, the Knickerbocker Trust Company, "began experiencing unfavorable clearing house balances," a problem that was connected with the banks that were initially in trouble (Friedman, pg. 159). The next day, the Knickerbocker Trust Company was suspended by the Clearing House. The suspension occurred after considerable debate among the members as the articles from the New York Times in *Appendix A* indicate. Friedman and Schwartz argue that if the Knickerbocker were helped, the further crisis developments might have been prevented (Friedman, pg. 159). Since the entire credit structure appeared to be in danger, the Trust Company of America and the Lincoln Trust Company were given assistance when they began experiencing difficulties on October 23 and 24 respectively which saved them from failing. However, the general alarm outside New York could not be prevented.

Between October 21 and October 23, while the heavy runs on the New York trust companies were occurring, the New York Clearing House banks had to furnish currency required by the trust companies as well as ship currency to banks in the rest of the country for use there. In order to aid the Clearing House, Secretary of the Treasury, George Cortelyou, deposited \$25 million with the chief central reserve city banks in New York on October 24. The aid provided the banks with the funds for local withdrawals. Between October 19 and October 31, Cortelyou

deposited \$36 million in New York banks. Also, \$28 million had already been deposited mainly in banks outside New York between August 28 and October 14.



A decisive step to curb the panic was undertaken by J. Pierpont Morgan.

Source: Chartered for Progress, pg. 109

However, New York was still threatened with panic. Loans were difficult to obtain and stock market prices collapsed. On October 24, J.P. Morgan, one of the most powerful financiers of the era, organized a money pool of \$25 million in order to prevent a further price decline on the stock exchange. Some leading banks and financiers subscribed to that pool.

Next day, another pool of \$10 million was formed. The local runs slowed down by the end of the week but alarm had already spread throughout the country.

In response to the demand for currency by country banks who held deposits in New York, the New York Clearing House began issuing clearing house loan certificates on October 26. Fearing a drain on their reserves, the New York banks immediately began restricting the convertibility of deposits into currency. In previous panics during the 1800s, substitutes for currency were issued. Some of these included clearinghouse loan certificates issued to banks for payments to each other, small clearinghouse checks and certificates, cashiers' checks, and manufacturers' pay checks. The restriction pushed the currency to a premium over deposits. The premium reached a high of four percent (4%). This meant that every dollar of cash was worth \$1.04 in bank deposits or that an individual was willing to give up one dollar worth of bank

deposits in order to obtain \$0.96 in cash. Deposits became a less desirable asset because of distrust of banks and because deposits were no longer so useful for transaction purposes. This economic phenomenon was termed "hoarding of currency" by Oliver M.W. Sprague (pg. 276). The restriction of payments by the New York banks quickly spread to banks throughout the country. The restriction period ended in January, 1908.

Interpretation of Events in 1907

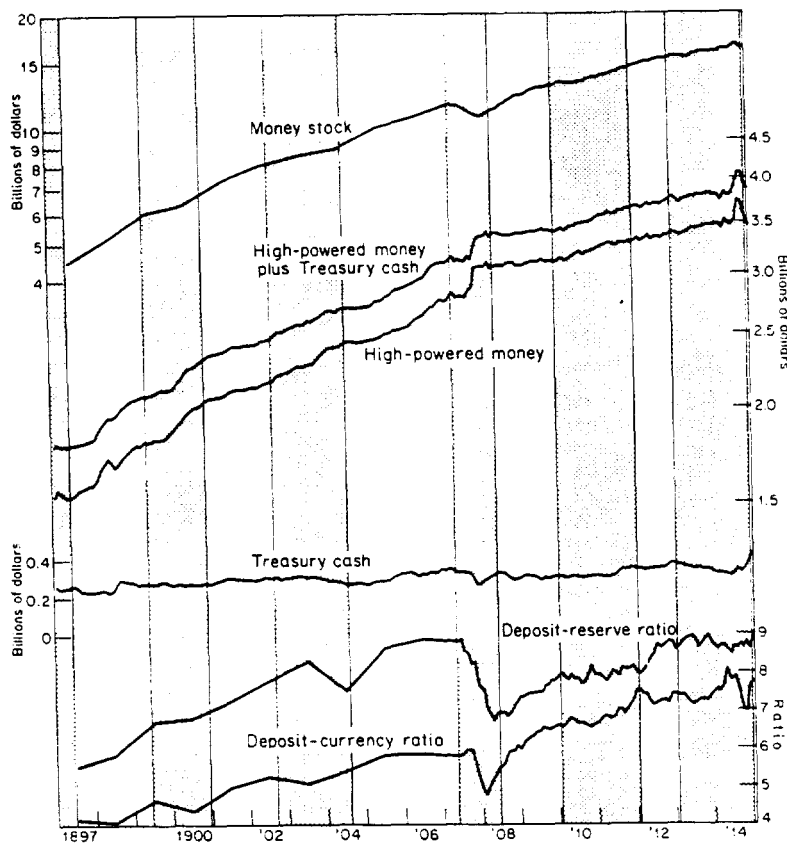
The most common interpretation of the banking panic of 1907 is that the panic and restriction of payments transformed a fairly mild economic contraction into a severe one. This interpretation motivated the monetary reform of the time that culminated in the Federal Reserve Act in 1913 (Friedman, pg. 163). Friedman and Schwartz, while recognizing that the bigger and stronger New York banks might have postponed restriction of payments by heavy and prompt lending to the weaker banks and trust companies and by supplying the currency needs of banks outside of New York, defend the relatively early restriction of payments. They believe that the restriction was a "therapeutic measure" which prevented the contraction from becoming even more severe and much more prolonged than it was (Friedman, pg. 163). Weak banks failed but such failures did not cause a chain reaction. Only a few banks failed because of temporary illiquidity. "Restriction of payments thus protected the banking system and gave time for the immediate panic to wear off, as well as for additional currency to be made available" (Friedman, pg. 167). Based on Friedman's and Schwartz's interpretation, the early restriction of payments helped prevent widespread bank failures, cut short a possible major deflation, and kept the maximum decline in the stock of money to less than eight percent (Friedman, pg. 167).

In the "History of Crises Under the National Banking System," however, Oliver M.W. Sprague argues that the restriction of payments was a "discreditable step [because it] was taken when the New York banks were much stronger than on other occasions and when prospects for securing additional funds were far more promising" (pg. 261). Sprague criticizes the New York banks because they delayed the issue of clearinghouse loan certificates and resorted to restriction of payments, while their own reserves were still sufficient (Sprague, pg. 273). Sprague believes that early assistance to the Knickerbocker Trust Company might have prevented any distrust in the soundness of the banking system. At the same time, he does not blame the failure of the clearinghouse authorities to aid this third largest trust company in New York because the Knickerbocker was not a member of the New York Clearing House (Sprague, pg. 253).

Friedman and Schwartz identify two reasons for high vulnerability of the banking system in 1907 to a shift in the liquidity preferences: (1) the ratio of deposits to currency (D/C) had been growing steadily and (2) the ratio of deposits to banks' reserves (D/R) had been rising irregularly and slowly until about 1898 and then it accelerated (Friedman, pg. 164). These occurrences are represented in the following chart by the deposit-reserve ratio and deposit-currency ratio curves.

Chart 2

The Stock of Money and Its Proximate Determinants, and
Treasury Cash, 1897-1914



NOTE: Shaded areas represent business contractions; unshaded areas, business expansions. The top three curves are plotted on a ratio scale, the bottom three on an arithmetic scale.

Source: *Monetary History of the United States*, pg. 175

“The rise in the ratio of deposits to reserves intensified the effect of any attempted shift on the part of the public to currency” (pg. 65). It made banks more susceptible to failure through runs because the extent to which they could satisfy the increased demand for currency diminished as the ratio of deposits to reserves increased. Consequently, banks were more prone to strengthen their cash positions at the slightest sign of possible demands on them (Friedman, pg. 165).

The Reform of the Banking System

The Aldrich-Vreeland Act

Named for Senator Nelson W. Aldrich and Representative Edward B. Vreeland, this temporary act (1908) dealt with the problem of how to provide enough currency quickly to satisfy the demands of the public when it wanted to convert large amounts of deposits into cash. To do so was critical for the system because if total currency (high-powered money) could not be expanded rapidly the withdrawal of it from the banks would deplete their reserves as depicted by the high-powered money curve during the second half of 1907 in chart 2. By a sort of reflex action, this would make banks reduce their liabilities and so reduce the total means of payment (deposits plus currency) by a multiple amount. "Short-period 'elasticity' in one component of the money stock -currency- was therefore desirable in order to prevent undesired 'elasticity' in the total money stock" (Friedman, pg. 169).

The Aldrich-Vreeland Act permitted banks to join together in groups to form National Currency Associations which were empowered to issue emergency currency. The banks would deposit certain approved assets (commercial paper and bonds) with the association. Limits would be placed on the amounts of currency that could be created and the notes would have to be retired promptly once the emergency ended, a process to be encouraged by taxes on notes. The emergency provisions of the Aldrich-Vreeland Act were used only once, at the outbreak of World War I, before the Act expired on June 30, 1915. On that occasion, the act successfully provided "an effective device for solving a threatened interconvertibility crisis without monetary contraction or widespread bank-failures" (Friedman, pg. 172).

Another very important clause of the Aldrich-Vreeland Act provided for the appointment of a National Monetary Commission which served as the incubator for the Federal Reserve Act. Senator Nelson Aldrich was the Chairman and Representative Edward Vreeland was the Vice-Chairman of the eighteen-member congressional body. Through hearings and many special studies, the commission undertook an exhaustive examination of the monetary system and possible remedies for its deficiencies. In 1912, the Commission issued a report to Congress recommending a plan of reform. The Commission's proposals for a central bank were highly contentious politically (Johnson, pp. 17-18). After extensive debate, the Federal Reserve Act was passed on December 23, 1913. The new system was very similar in general structure to and identical in many details with the specific plan of reform recommended by the commission (Friedman, pg. 171). Prior to the 1912 report by the Commission, Senator Aldrich proposed a bill whose similarities with the Federal Reserve Act of 1913 are quite apparent.

The New Aldrich Bill of 1911

In 1911, Senator Aldrich proposed a new bill for creation of a National Reserve Association with a paid-in capital of \$100 million. The Association would be wholly owned by subscribing banks and would have fifteen regional districts. The board of directors of each district's branch were to be selected by local associations of banks. Even though the head office charged with overseeing the district branches was going to be located in Washington D.C., the government would not be represented on the board of this new institution. All national banks would be required to become members, while the state banks could chose to join or not, as they saw fit. The new bill appealed to the banking community by emphasizing that the National Reserve Association would function as a national clearinghouse (White, pg. 94). On one

occasion, senator Aldrich said that “the organization proposed is not a bank, but a cooperative union of all banks of the country for definite purposes and with very limited defined functions. It is, in effect an extension, an evolution of the Clearing House plan modified to meet the needs and requirements of an entire people” (White, pg. 94). As the composition of the board of directors conveys, small banks were given a voice in the selection of directors, while the weight of votes of large banks depended on their subscription or contribution to the association’s stock (White, pg. 95). One of the branches’ responsibilities was to rediscount notes and bills of exchange endorsed by members on agricultural, industrial, or commercial transactions of twenty-eight days or less maturity. The purpose of this provision was to “impart sufficient elasticity to the currency according to the principles of the real bills doctrine” (White, pg. 95). The bill forbade discounting of bills drawn to carry stocks, bonds, or other investment securities with the purpose of dissolving the relation between banking and the stock market (White, pg. 95).


The new Aldrich Plan was rejected and, in Thibaut de Saint Phalle’s opinion, that was due to several reasons: (1) the absence of any real government influence over the system, (2) the proposal to allow the banks to include notes as reserves, (3) a uniform discount rate, and (4) centralization of the National Reserve Association’s administration. Another important reason deals with the political circumstances: the newly-elected Democratic Congress was strongly opposed to centralized control of the banking system. Many members of Congress perceived Aldrich as the spokesman for Wall Street bankers which reduced the credibility of Aldrich’s arguments (Phalle, pg. 50). Even though the Aldrich Bill never became law, many of its features were later included in the Federal Reserve Act.

Soon after his election, President Woodrow Wilson took an active interest in the preparation of a banking reform bill and called a special session of Congress in the Spring of 1913 largely to deal with banking legislation. Fear of control by Wall Street on one hand and too much government control on the other required reconciliation. Eventually, the bill of Virginia's

DECEMBER 24, 1913 - SIXTEEN PAGES - PRICE TWO CENTS

PRESIDENT'S SIGNATURE - ENACTS CURRENCY LAW

Wilson Declares It the First of Series of
Constructive Acts to Aid Business.



**Makes Speech to Group of
Democratic Leaders.**

Conference Report Adopted in
Senate by Vote of 43 to 25.

Banks All Over the Country Hasten to
Enter Federal Reserve System.

Gov.-Elect Walsh Calls Passage of Bill
A Fine Christmas Present.

**WILSON SEES DAWN OF
NEW ERA IN BUSINESS**

HOME VIEWS OF FOUR PENS USED
CURRENCY ACT BY PRESIDENT

Aims to Make Prosperity Free to
Have Unimpeded Momentum.

President Wilson signs the Federal Reserve Act

Representative Carter Glass and a Senate version of it resulted in a compromise that received President Wilson's signature on December 23, 1913 as the Federal Reserve Act. The legislative process was complicated and involved numerous political leaders, bankers, and academicians.

The Federal Reserve Act of 1913

This legislation established a new banking structure under the supervision of the Federal Reserve Board and twelve district Federal Reserve Banks. The purpose of the act was clearly stated in its introductory section:

“To provide for the establishment of the Federal Reserve Banks, to furnish an elastic currency, to afford means of rediscounting commercial paper, to establish a more effective supervision of banking in the United States, and for other purposes” (The Statutes, Vol. XXXVIII, pg. 251).

Eugene N. White, in “The Regulation and Reform of the American Banking System, 1900-1929,” lists the main provisions of the Act of 1913 (pp. 97-98):

1. Every member bank was required to contribute six percent of its capital and surplus to the Federal Reserve Bank (one half was to be paid in and the other half was on call).
2. State-chartered member banks had to conform to the minimum capital requirements of national banks.
3. Reserve requirements on demand deposits established by the National Banking Act were lowered to eighteen percent (18%) for central-reserve-city banks, fifteen percent (15%) for reserve-city banks, and twelve percent (12%) for country banks. With respect to time deposits, the new reserve requirement was reduced to five percent (5%) for all classes of banks. For a brief time, part of these reserves could be carried in vault cash, but eventually they had to be deposited with the Federal Reserve Bank where they earned no interest.

4. Member banks were forbidden to have a deposit in excess of ten percent (10%) of capital and surplus with a nonmember bank.
5. Member banks were examined twice per year by the Comptroller of the Currency and were subject to special examination on the discretion of the Federal Reserve Bank.
6. All member banks had the privilege of rediscounting notes, drafts, and bills of exchange at the Federal Reserve. Financial instruments used to carry stocks or bonds, except those of the U.S. government, were excluded. The maturity of the instruments discounted could not exceed ninety days (except in cases of agricultural bills which were allowed a maximum six-month maturity). Notes or paper for firms or individuals which were worth more than ten percent (10%) of the bank's capital and surplus were prohibited. Bank acceptances which were based on import or export of goods and had maturities of no more than three months were discountable as long as they were not worth more than fifty percent of a bank's capital and surplus.
7. Member banks were required to deposit, at par, checks and drafts drawn upon any of the depositories of the Federal Reserve Banks with the Federal Reserve Bank. The Federal Reserve Banks also became the acting clearing houses for their members.
8. The act established a mechanism for gradual retirement of national bank notes in order to avoid lowering of prices of bonds which were used to secure those notes.

The Act provides an elastic supply of currency which was viewed as a deficiency of the previous system. Now, as business activity grew, the money supply could expand as well as contract once the demand for currency decreased thus preventing periodic panics and runs on banks. However, as it is evident from the banking panics of the Great Depression, this provision of the Act did not

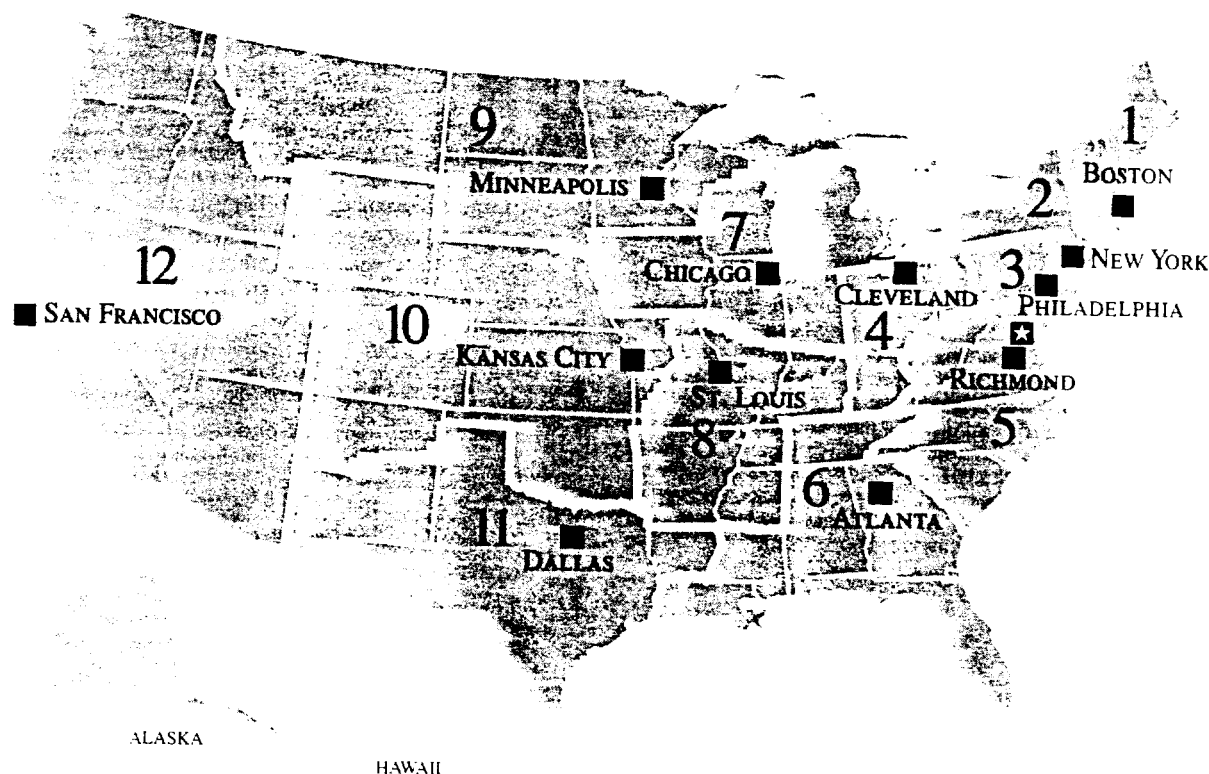
work in solving the currency inelasticity problems as it was intended by the authors of the Act.

Another important provision of the Act was the centralization of bank reserves which pooled “the system’s reserves for common use in periods of credit stringency” (Phalle, pg. 54).

These provisions pleased many in the banking community as indicated by the excerpts from the New York Times dated December 24 and 25, 1913 in the *Appendix B*. This is reinforced by the fact that two hundred and thirteen (213) banks applied for membership in the new Federal Reserve System during its first day, December 24, 1913.

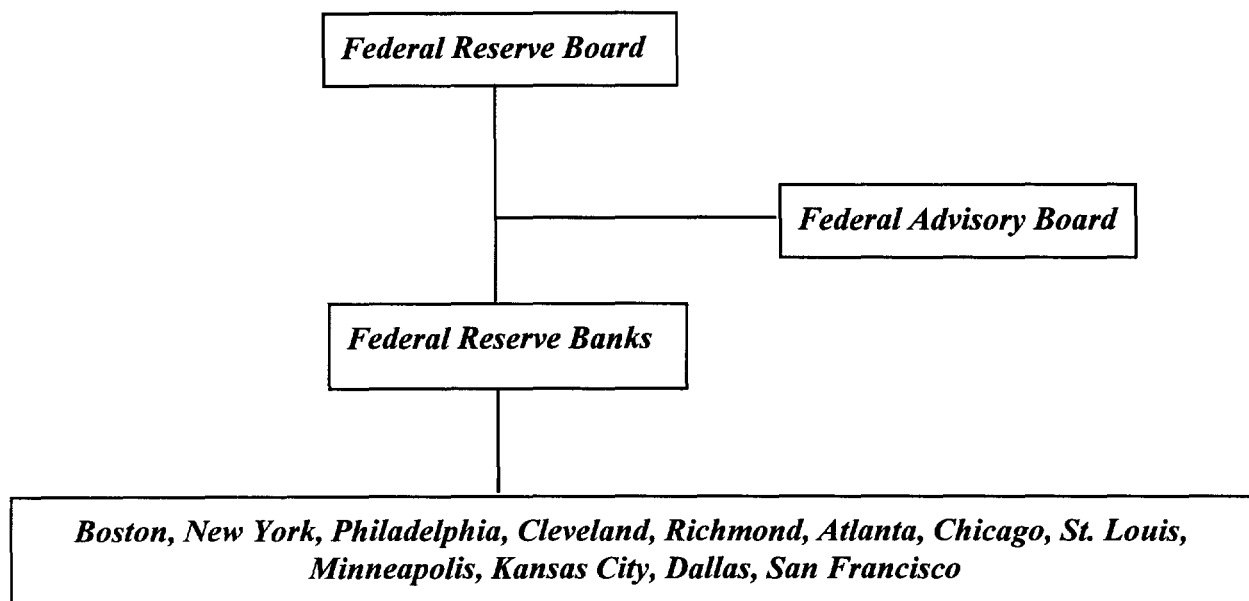
Federal Reserve System under the Act of 1913

The Federal Reserve Act of 1913 provided for the establishment of twelve Regional Federal Reserve Banks located in Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Cleveland, Richmond, Atlanta, Chicago, St. Louis, Minneapolis, Kansas City, Dallas, and San Francisco.



The structure of the initial Federal Reserve System is represented by the following chart:

Federal Reserve System, 1913



The stock of each *Federal Reserve Bank* was held by the member banks of its district. Each district bank had a board of directors serving three-year terms and each district bank selected one person to serve on the Federal Advisory Board which met four times a year in Washington D.C. The Federal Reserve Act granted power to every Federal Reserve Bank to establish discount rates which could vary among the districts. However, all district rates had to be approved by the Federal Reserve Board in Washington D.C. The district banks were also charged with deciding whether or not to make loans to individual member banks.

The Federal Reserve Board consisted of seven members which included the Secretary of the Treasury, the Comptroller of the Currency, one member designated by the President as Governor and one as a Vice Governor. All seven members were appointed by the President for

fourteen-year terms. The Board supervised the twelve district banks, as indicated by the chart, and was authorized to perform open-market operations (to buy and sell acceptances and government securities). Among the most important powers granted to the Board by the Act is the power to issue currency without a limit.

The Federal Advisory Board was composed of twelve members, one from each Federal Reserve district. The member for each district was elected annually by the board of directors of the Federal Reserve Bank for that district. The Act required the Board to meet at least four times a year in Washington D.C. All members of the Board were private commercial bankers. The board was empowered to either directly or through its officers make representations regarding matters within the jurisdiction of the Federal Reserve Board, to call for information, and to make recommendations in regard to discount rates, rediscount business, note issues, reserve conditions in various districts, open-market operations, and the general affairs of the Federal Reserve System. The Board's function was entirely advisory.

All *member banks* with national charters were required to be members of the Federal Reserve System. Banks with state charters could voluntarily join the system if they were qualified for membership and accepted by the Federal Reserve Board. The financial condition of the applying bank, the general character of its management, and whether or not the corporate powers exercised were consistent with the purposes of the Federal Reserve Act were all important considerations in deciding to allow the applicant's membership. Once the bank became a member, it assumed a number of important obligations. It was required to comply with the reserve requirements of the Federal Reserve and to keep its required reserves on deposit without interest at the Federal Reserve Bank in its district. The member bank was a subject to

various requirements of Federal law with respect to branch banking, holding-company regulation, interlocking directorates, certain loan and investment limitations, and other matters. Finally, each member bank was a subject to supervision and examination by the Federal Reserve authorities.

The Act of 1913, however, was not the end of the banking reform process as many had hoped. Changes in the Federal Reserve System were called for after the financial crises of the Great Depression and were accomplished primarily by the Glass-Steagall Act of 1933 and the Banking Act of 1935. These acts extended the powers of the Federal Reserve, particularly those of the Federal Reserve Board, and created the system as we know it today.

Summary

The chaotic nature of American banking prior to and during the civil war led to an attempt to form national banks. Such banks presumably could solve some of the most pressing problems of that time: highly-risky investments by state banks, variety of notes which made trade difficult and expensive, bank monopoly and special favoritism, lack of available and sufficient reserves to back up the deposits, state banks issuing more notes than their paid-in capital could support, etc.

Formation of the national banking system in 1864 helped solve some of these problems but it failed with respect to some others. For instance, the Act of 1864 prohibited banks from engaging in some high-risk activities, such as long-term, non-commercial investments and operations. It also attempted to solve the problem of bank monopolies and special favoritism by embracing the principle of *free banking*. The Act authorized national banks to issue notes secured by the U.S. government which now made notes more sound and, also, made an attempt to standardize the reserves held against bank deposits. However, the national banking system did not foster interbank cooperation and did not have much influence on the non-national banks. Therefore, in time of panic, each bank scrambled to protect itself which made it more difficult to resist the increasing runs on banks. Furthermore, pyramiding of reserves caused the actual level of available reserves to be much lower than it was nominally required, thus making the banking system weaker than it appeared. The inelasticity of currency was one of the more important problems of the national banking system. When the economy was performing well, the money

supply could not be increased to accommodate its needs nor could it shrink when the economy was sluggish.

The weaknesses of the national banking system in the 1800s were apparent to contemporary observers. However, restructuring of the system required major changes which many did not favor. It was the severe panic of 1907 that induced lawmakers to undertake a major reform of the system. The panic, it was claimed, transformed a fairly mild economic contraction into a severe one which motivated the monetary reform. In May 1908, Congress passed the Aldrich-Vreeland Act, a piece of stopgap legislation designed to prevent panics like those that plagued the U.S. economy in previous years. The Aldrich-Vreeland Act created a National Currency Association with the power to issue emergency currency to banks experiencing difficulty resulting from a general monetary stringency. The Act also created the National Monetary Commission charged with conducting a study of the money and banking system.

The work of the National Monetary Commission led to the first attempt to establish a central bank along the lines of the Federal Reserve by introducing the Aldrich bill in 1911. The bill would have created a central bank called the National Reserve Association. Membership in the Association was voluntary, bank notes were to be issued against general assets and government bonds, and there were provisions for central rediscounting of commercial paper, reserves against deposits, and reserves against bank note issues. The Aldrich bill vested the control over the Association in the nation's bankers rather than in the government. This was enough to doom the bill since it threatened to bolster the power of the so-called "money trust," a concentration of control of money and credit in the hands of a few Wall Street leaders. Also, the

bill was introduced by Republicans in a newly-elected Democratic Congress which made its approval more difficult.

After a long and politically controversial process, the Federal Reserve Act of 1913 was introduced in Congress the year following the failure of the Aldrich Bill. The intention was to create a central banking system which would avoid either political or private domination of the monetary system. The new system was a blend of public and private participation under the coordination of a public body, the Federal Reserve Board. The system was designed such that it could be independent within the general structure of the government, not necessarily independent of the government. It has been compared broadly to a trusteeship created by the Congress to administer the nation's credit and monetary policies. It was a trusteeship committed to safeguarding the integrity of the monetary system. The Federal Reserve Act of 1913 provided tools to manage money and credit markets more effectively than ever before. However, its effectiveness was widely questioned during the Great Depression of 1930s when three banking panics occurred. Despite the fact that the original Act of 1913 was changed by the Glass-Steagall Act of 1933 and Banking Act of 1935, it still remains one of the most important pieces of financial legislation enacted in the twentieth century. The Federal Reserve Act of 1913 had created the basic structure of the Federal Reserve System which still remains and is one of the most successful financial entities in the world. In a sense, it is comparable to the Roman Colosseum, a ruin still admired by many.

Appendix

A

\$5,000,000 FOR ORPHAN GIRLS.

Robert N. Carson's Will Provides Institution Similar to Girard College.

PHILADELPHIA, Oct. 22.—It was announced to-day that the will of Robert N. Carson, a millionaire of this city, who died suddenly in a theatre here last week, provides for a \$5,000,000 institution for orphan girls, patterned after Girard College in this city, which is exclusively for boys. The bequest becomes effective after the death of the widow, Mrs. Frances Carson. The institution will be located at Florissant, just over the city line in Montgomery County.

The will is almost identical with that of Stephen Girard, who founded the largest college of its kind in the world. Like Girard's will, Mr. Carson's bequest provides that the institution shall not be controlled by any religious denomination, and that no religious services shall be held in the institution that are peculiar or exclusive to any church.

The girls are to be carefully instructed in the fundamental principles of Christianity, and no other form of any sect is to be excluded from the grounds, but there is to be no proselyting or reference to peculiar tenets or belief expressed before the pupils.

The management of the college is to be intrusted to a board of seven trustees, who are to be appointed by the executor and trustees of the will.

The college will be open to all poor white girls both of whose parents are dead. In the matter of admission preference is to be given equally to girls born in the city of Philadelphia or in Montgomery County, which adjoins this city, after that admission here to those born in the State of Pennsylvania, and lastly to those born in the United States. The age of admission is between six and ten years, and of discharge from the college at eighteen or earlier, if the trustees deem it for the best interest of the girls.

WOULD SUE BRIDE IN GREEN.

Pittsburgher Whose Marriage Was a Hazy Dream Now Wants Divorce.

PITTSBURGH, Oct. 22.—Declaring that his only recollection of anything that took place at a hazy vision of a woman in green, Mr. Clayton Kane of this city is at Youngstown, Ohio, trying to find out the particulars of his marriage to Mrs. Katherine McCoy Gulick divorced wife of R. M. Gulick, the millionaire theatrical manager of this city.

The couple was married at Youngstown Oct. 4 by the Rev. S. P. Whitner, the "marrying priest" of that place, and to-day Dr. Kane sought the minister for particulars. To him he declared that he was intoxicated at the time of the wedding, and that he was kidnapped, and will institute proceedings for divorce from the woman he married. His wife, he says, is in Philadelphia.

Dr. Kane, who is a prominent young physician of this city, met Mrs. Gulick in the case of the horse where he lives on the night of Oct. 2. She was alleged to have been taken to the hotel, and the following day she appeared at the marriage license office, but was refused a license.

The same thing happened the next day, and on the day following that, the couple went to Youngstown, where they were married.

TWO BOYS DEAD FROM RABIES.

Were Bitten by a Dog Nearly Seven Months Ago.

WILKESBARRE, Penn., Oct. 22.—Samuel Burnett, aged 7 years, of Malby, and John Zeemertis of Dupont, nearly identical twins, are dead at their homes from rabies, and Isaac Burnett, aged 12 years, a brother of Samuel, and George Began, a neighbor, were sent to Piquette Institute in New York to-day to be placed under treatment for hydrophobia.

The Burnett, Billman and Rea were bitten nearly seven months ago by a dog, but no symptoms of rabies developed until a few days ago. Zeemertis and another boy named Joseph Oretto were bitten by a dog five weeks ago.

When symptoms of rabies developed Oretto was sent to the Pasteur Institute, but Zeemertis refused to go and died in great agony.

HIT MARK 3,200 YARDS AWAY.

Satisfactory Test Made of Bliss-Leavitt Turbine Torpedo.

AID TRUST CO. OF AMERICA

It Has Twelve Millions, and as Much as May Be Needed Is Pledged.

J. P. MORGAN IS TO HELP

With Other Financiers He Acts at Night Meeting with Secretary Cortelyou.

THE SITUATION CLEARING

Government Aid Pledged and Cortelyou Will Supervise for the Treasury.

At a conference between Secretary Cortelyou, who came on from Washington in response to a hurry call, and the chief bankers of the city, headed by J. P. Morgan at the Hotel Manhattan last night, it was formally decided that the point needing buttressing now is the Trust Company of America, the third largest institution of its kind in the city, and of which Oakleigh Thorne is President.

Earliest attention was given to this new problem, and the result was the formation of a powerful syndicate to stand by the company at its opening to-day.

This determination was announced at 1 A. M. in the following official statement, and Mr. Perkins and President Thorne had been in conference at the Union League Club subsequent to the Hotel Manhattan gathering:

The Official Statement.

The chief sore point is the Trust Company of America. The conference felt that the situation there is such that the company is sound. Provision has been made to supply all the cash needed this morning. The conference feel sure the company will be able to pull through. The company has twelve million dollars cash and as much more as needed has been pledged for this purpose. It is safe to assume that J. P. Morgan & Co. will be leaders in this movement to furnish funds.

A committee has been named, including a representative of Morgan & Co. and others, to look over the accounts of the Trust Company of America, with the idea of definitely determining its position.

The guarantees of cash made last night are for the purpose of meeting any demands upon the Trust Company of America, pending the completion of this examination.

After the close of the Manhattan conference one of the chief conferees, a Clearing House committee man, said:

"I think it safe to say now that no other financial institution of the least importance will have to undergo the experience of the Knickerbocker Trust Company. I feel optimistic for the first time since these troubles began."

It was also said there was no thought that the Trust Company of America was in anything like the position of the Knickerbocker Trust Company, but these steps were taken with the intention of making an authoritative statement before noon to-day that the Trust Company will be taken care of in any eventuality, providing conditions are found as sound as there is every reason to believe them to be.

That these interests have agreed, pending final examination of its accounts, to supply the Trust Company of America with any cash needed was pointed to as proving the confidence of all interests in the soundness of the company.

Those who were at the Hotel Manhattan conference with Secretary Cortelyou were J. P. Morgan, Charles D. Conover, John D. Rockefeller, and others.

the train for New York, telegraphing first to the local Sub-Treasury to release \$5,000,000 of Government money to the banks of this city upon their deposit with the Sub-Treasury of collaterals.

The statement which was given out in Washington ran as follows:

"The Secretary of the Treasury is keeping in close touch with the business conditions throughout the country. In the matter of public deposits he will at times consult the needs of legitimate business interests and will not hesitate to deal promptly and adequately with any situation that may arise."

After the Secretary had gone there was given out at the department a statement showing that there still remain outstanding only \$5,070,000 of the 4 per cent. bonds, which are being redeemed under the circular of April 2. In some quarters this was taken to mean that the \$5,000,000 reported from New York to have been deposited had been sent there for the redemption of these 4 per cent. bonds.

The Examination.

While the financial community was busy yesterday in watching closely the efforts which were being made to rehabilitate the affairs of the Knickerbocker Trust Company, if possible, the State Banking companies were giving close attention to the affairs of other institutions. State Bank Examiner Albert C. Judson, it was learned last night, made an examination yesterday of all of the loans of the Trust Company of America. Confirmation of this fact was obtained last night from Mr. Judson himself. Mr. Judson at his home in Staten Island said:

"It is true that I made an examination of the Trust Company of America's loans to-day. My purpose in making this examination was to investigate reports which had been spread abroad that both C. W. Morse and Charles T. Barney were heavy borrowers from the Trust Company of America. My examination revealed the fact that Mr. Morse has no loans whatever with the Trust Company of America, and that the only loan which Mr. Barney had amounted to \$175,000, and this was amply secured."

The interesting fact brought to light last night was that the security pledged by Mr. Barney to cover this loan was 240 shares of the Knickerbocker Trust Company's stock, of a par value of \$2,400, which recently had a high market valuation.

Asked whether he regarded this security as ample to cover Mr. Barney's loan, Mr. Judson said, "I think so." The stock of the Knickerbocker Trust Company has sold as high as \$1,000 a share, although it would not be very salable under existing conditions.

Mr. Judson was asked if his examination revealed any loans by the Trust Company of America to its President, Oakleigh Thorne. Mr. Judson said Mr. Thorne had not a single loan with the Trust Company of America.

Its Directors' Loans on Call.

Mr. Judson's attention was drawn to the fact that the last report of the Trust Company of America to the State Banking Department showed that the liability of Directors to the trust company reached a total of \$1,485,514. Mr. Judson said that practically all of these loans represented call loans to Directors who happened to be brokers, and are borrowing money on call in the usual course of business. All of these loans, Mr. Judson said, were fully secured by collateral which showed the usual margin of 25 per cent. in market value over the amount of the loans.

One of the chief officers of the Trust Company of America showed no hesitancy last night in admitting that the Bank Examiners had made an inspection of the Trust Company of America's loans. This officer said, as Mr. Judson had previously, that the reason for the examination was to investigate reports of heavy loans to Mr. Morse and Mr. Barney. He added that, as the statement by Mr. Judson showed, Mr. Morse had no loans whatever with the Trust Company of America. Mr. Morse, further, had no connection, direct or indirect, with the Trust Company of America, and, furthermore, the Trust Company of America was in no way concerned in any of Mr. Morse's ventures.

Bank Examiner Judson, it was learned after his examination of the Trust Company of America's loans, supplied to the trust company a certificate to the effect that he had found no loans whatever had been made to Mr. Morse and that the only loan to Mr. Barney was the \$175,000 already referred to.

State of the Trust Company.

According to the statement of the State

KNICKERBOCKER WILL NOT OPEN

Conference of Bankers Deems It Unwise to Aid the Trust Company Further To-day.

EIGHT MILLIONS WITHDRAWN

Attorney General Jackson, Though, Will Take No Step to Close the Institution.

STILL HOPES FOR THE BEST.

Results of Conferences After a Suspension, a Brokers' Failure, and Panicky Day in Wall Street.

After the conference of bankers last night it was learned that the Knickerbocker Trust Company, which shut its doors yesterday afternoon after the withdrawal of \$4,000,000 by depositors, was regarded by those at the conference as insolvent, and that no aid was to be extended to that institution.

It was the opinion of all the bankers at the conference that the general banking situation, not only as far as it concerned the banks, but the trust companies as well, has been very much strengthened, and no further trouble is apprehended. Such trust companies as may deserve assistance, it was learned, will receive it.

Early this morning a Knickerbocker Trust Company Director said to a Times reporter:

"There is no chance that the Knickerbocker Trust Company will reopen in its old form. I can say nothing more, now."

It was stated authoritatively after the conference that the reason the Knickerbocker Trust Company was not aided by the Clearing House Association and Mr. Morgan and his associates was that the company's capital and surplus were impaired, and that Mr. Morgan did not care to assume the responsibilities of previous poor management.

Attorney General's Hopefulness.

On the other hand, Attorney General Jackson, after a conference with Acting Superintendent of Banks Skinner, which lasted until 1 o'clock this morning, made the announcement that he would take no step to close the Knickerbocker Trust to-day, even if it did not resume payments, Mr. Jackson said:

"I am fully confident that the officials of the company are able to raise money enough to pay all demands."

Mr. Jackson arrived at the Murray Hill Hotel at 10:30 o'clock and there met three members of his staff and Acting Superintendent of Banks Skinner, with three of the latter's chief examiners. They immediately went to Parlor II on the ground floor and went over the situation at length. When the meeting broke up at 1 o'clock the Attorney General said he had gone over the situation thoroughly with Mr. Skinner, and was of the opinion that the Knickerbocker Trust Company would be able to resume business to-day.

"I understand," he said, "that the Directors are in conference to-night, and I expect that they will be able to get assistance which will make it possible for them to open. I consider the situation hopeful. There is no occasion for hysteria."

When asked directly if he would institute insolvency proceedings if payments to depositors were not resumed this morning Mr. Jackson replied that he had already said he fully expected the company would resume payments in the course of the day. He was then asked if he would close the institution if payments were not resumed to-day.

No," said Mr. Jackson, "I shall give

Oct. 4, 1917, and the "marrying party" of that place, and to-day Dr. Kane sought the minister for particulars. To him he declared that he was intoxicated at the time of the wedding, and that he was kidnapped, and will institute proceedings for divorce from the woman he married. His wife, he says, is in Philadelphia.

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When symptoms of rabies developed Ortolto was sent to the Pasteur Institute, but Zeemertis refused to go and died in great agony.

HIT MARK 3,200 YARDS AWAY.

Satisfactory Test Made of Bliss-Leavitt Turbine Torpedo.

Special to The New York Times. NEWPORT, R. I., Oct. 22.—To determine the accuracy of the new Bliss-Leavitt turbine torpedo, such as will be used by the navy in the future, a test was made by Commander Albert Gleaves, in charge of the Naval Torpedo Station here, and Chairman of the Naval Torpedo Board, at Narragansett Bay to-day.

One of the new missiles was fired from the torpedo boat Morris at a target 3,200 yards away. It went true to its mark at a rate of 25 knots.

The Government officials were highly satisfied with the showing made by the torpedo.

BALLOON FOR HIS STOCKING.

Mrs. Fleischmann to Make Big Christmas Gift to Her Husband.

Special to The New York Times. ST. LOUIS, Oct. 22.—A balloon will be a Christmas present to Mrs. Fleischmann of Christmas from her wife. Mrs. Fleischmann came to St. Louis for the balloon race, and was one of the few women who gained admittance to the starting field. She gave an order to-day for a balloon for a balloon to cost \$2,000 and said it was destined to go to Mr. Fleischmann's stocking. He is now on a hunting expedition in the Northwest. The Fleischmanns recently returned from Africa, where they hunted big game.

TELEPHONED GIRLS; LYNCHED

Indiana Negro Who Went to Mississippi the Mob's Victim.

Special to The New York Times.

VAN NLEET, Miss. Oct. 22.—Henry Sykes, a negro, was lynched here to-night by a small crowd of men thought to hail from the neighboring town of Okolona. Sykes, who was a recent arrival from Indiana, was accused of calling up white girls in Okolona on the telephone and snoring them.

The town authorities tried a derogatory telephone message to get Sykes here, but before he could be taken he had escaped. An all-night chase ended when the posse captured the negro after a brief fight in which shots were exchanged.

Standard Accident Ins. Co. Assets \$1,000,000. Accident, Sickness, Liability Insurance. 82 W. 4th St., New York.

pany is equal. A provision has been made to supply all the cash needed this morning. The conferees feel sure the company will be able to pull through. The company had twelve million dollars cash and as much more as needed has been pledged for this purpose. It is safe to assume that J. P. Morgan & Co. will be leaders in this movement to furnish funds. A committee has been named, including a representative of Morgan & Co. and others, to look over the accounts of the Trust Company of America, with the idea of definitely determining its position.

"The guarantees of cash made last night are for the purpose of meeting any demands upon the Trust Company of America, pending the completion of this examination."

After the close of the Manhattan conference one of the chief conferees, a Clearing House committee man, said:

"I think it safe to say now that no other financial institution of the least importance will have to undergo the experience of the Knickerbocker Trust Company. I feel optimistic for the first time since these troubles began."

It was also said there was no thought that the Trust Company of America was in anything like the position of the Knickerbocker Trust Company, but these steps were taken with the intention of making an authoritative statement before noon to-day that the Trust Company will be taken care of in any eventuality, providing conditions are found as sound as there is every reason to believe them to be.

That these interests have agreed, pending final examination of its accounts, to supply the Trust Company of America with any cash needed was pointed to as proving the confidence of all interests in the soundness of the company.

Those who were at the Hotel Manhattan conference with Mr. Cortelyou were J. P. Morgan, George F. Baker, George W. Perkins, Frank A. Vanderlip, A. B. Hepburn of the Chase National Bank, President Stillman of the City National Bank, J. G. Cannon, Vice President of the Fourth National Bank, and State Controller Glynn. Most of them stayed an hour or more, and Mr. Perkins was the last to leave, not getting away until nearly 12 o'clock.

The afternoon meeting at Morgan & Co.'s offices had been postponed in order to have the benefit of Secretary Cortelyou's advice when it came together again in the evening, and at this time the entire situation was carefully canvassed with the Secretary of the Treasury.

Hamilton Fish, Assistant United States Treasurer, in charge of the New York Sub-Treasury, was the official who formally greeted Mr. Cortelyou on his arrival.

Treasury Aid to Banks.

In a general discussion on the ferry-boat it was pointed out that the Treasury Department and the Government have for the last several weeks made heavy deposits of cash in the National depository banks throughout the country, and that these deposits were made in anticipation of the usual shortage of money at this season of the year, owing to the movement of the crops.

The situation in New York has demanded the attention of the Government for some time and it has recently sent many millions to the Sub-Treasury and to the National bank depositories to aid in relieving it. And the Government is willing to continue its help.

Here Mr. Cortelyou will receive the most reliable information, he believes. He will stay two or three days, or as long as is necessary to see the untangling of the situation.

At the very commencement of the day the telephone wires between New York and Washington began to sing with messages between bankers and Secretary of the Treasury Cortelyou and Controller of the Currency Ridgely.

The Government finance officers were kept fully informed of the situation in this city, and at noon the outlook was such that, following the closing of the Knickerbocker Trust Company's doors, Mr. Cortelyou and Mr. Ridgely collaborated in the preparation of a statement, and then Mr. Cortelyou immediately took

revealed any loans by the Trust Company of America to its President, Oakleigh Thorne. Mr. Judson said Mr. Thorne had not a single loan with the Trust Company of America.

Its Directors' Loans on Call.

Mr. Judson's attention was drawn to the fact that the last report of the Trust Company of America to the State Banking Department showed that the liability of Directors to the trust company reached a total of \$1,180,510. Mr. Judson said that practically all of these loans represented call loans to Directors who happened to be brokers, and are borrowing money on call in the usual course of business. All of these loans, Mr. Judson said, were fully secured by collateral which showed the usual margin of 25 per cent. in market value over the amount of the loans.

One of the chief officers of the Trust Company of America showed no hesitancy last night in admitting that the Bank Examiners had made an inspection of the Trust Company of America's loans. This officer said, as Mr. Judson had previously, that the reason for the examination was to investigate reports of heavy loans to Mr. Morse and Mr. Barney. He added that, as the statement by Mr. Judson showed, Mr. Morse had no loans whatever with the Trust Company of America. Mr. Morse, further, had no connection, direct or indirect, with the Trust Company of America, and, furthermore, the Trust Company of America was in no way concerned in any of Mr. Morse's ventures.

Bank Examiner Judson, it was learned after his examination of the Trust Company of America's loans, supplied to the trust company a certificate to the effect that he had found no loans whatever had been made to Mr. Morse and that the only loan to Mr. Barney was the \$175,000 already referred to.

State of the Trust Company.

According to the statement of the State Banking Department, shown by the condition of the trust companies of the State of New York at the close of business on Thursday, Aug. 22, the capital stock, paid in cash, of the Trust Company of America was \$2,000,000; surplus on book values, less current expenses and taxes paid, \$10,432,461; deposits, subject to check, not authorized, \$42,277,731.

The total resources of the company were \$77,003,464, divided as follows: Bonds and mortgages, \$4,459,897; stock and bond investments, \$13,539,101; loaned on collateral, \$42,528,208; other loans, including bills purchased, \$5,022,361; overdrafts, \$2,251; due from trust companies, banks, and bankers, not included in sum due from approved reserve depositories, less amount of offsets, \$2,731,722; due from approved reserve depositories, less amount of offsets, \$6,724,080; specie, \$2,288,220; legal tender notes and notes of National banks, \$322,500; cash items, \$21,904; other assets, \$403,177.

The total liabilities were \$77,003,464, divided as follows: Certificates of deposit, not preferred, \$5,351,447; amount due to trust companies, \$1,514,381; amount due banks and bankers, \$7,862,002; due savings banks, \$2,032,122; due savings and loan associations, \$45,262; due as executor, guardian, administrator, etc., \$5,988,831; other liabilities, \$140,000.

Surplus and undivided profits on market values of stocks and bonds, less current expenses and taxes paid, \$10,227,522; surplus on basis of book values after charging and crediting accrued interest not entered on books, \$10,525,941; surplus and undivided profits on market values, after charging and crediting accrued interest, \$10,801,019; total amount of deposits on which interest was being paid on that date, \$50,012,363.

ENDED HER LIFE IN THE OCEAN

Mrs. Schubert Jumped Overboard from the Steamer Manitou.

BOSTON, Oct. 22.—The suicide of Mrs. Christopher Schubert, who was on her way from Germany to Philadelphia, from the steamer Manitou, was reported upon the arrival of the steamer here to-day.

The woman, who was in a highly nervous state, jumped overboard on Oct. 11, when the Manitou was one day out from Antwerp. Mr. Schubert is a Philadelphia tailor.

Morgan and his associates was that the company's capital and surplus were impaired, and that Mr. Morgan did not care to assume the responsibilities of previous poor management.

Attorney General's Hopefulness.

On the other hand, Attorney General Jackson, after a conference with Acting Superintendent of Banks Skinner, which lasted until 1 o'clock this morning, made the announcement that he would take no step to close the Knickerbocker Trust to-day, even if it did not resume payments. Mr. Jackson said:

"I am fully confident that the officials of the company are able to raise money enough to pay all demands."

Mr. Jackson arrived at the Murray Hill Hotel at 10:30 o'clock and there met three members of his staff and Acting Superintendent of Banks Skinner, with three of the latter's chief examiners. They immediately went to Parlor 11 on the ground floor and went over the situation at length. When the meeting broke up at 1 o'clock the Attorney General said he had gone over the situation thoroughly with Mr. Skinner, and was of the opinion that the Knickerbocker Trust Company would be able to resume business to-day.

"I understand," he said, "that the Directors are in conference to-night, and I expect that they will be able to get assistance which will make it possible for them to open. I consider the situation hopeful. There is no occasion for hysteria."

When asked directly if he would institute insolvency proceedings if payments to depositors were not resumed this morning Mr. Jackson replied that he had already said he fully expected the company would resume payments in the course of the day. He was then asked if he would close the institution if payments were not resumed to-day.

"No," said Mr. Jackson, "I shall give them a fair opportunity to do what they can. I am fully confident of the ability of the company to raise money to pay all demands that may be made upon it."

Earlier in the day—at 1 o'clock in the afternoon—the Knickerbocker had been forced to close its doors after a run upon it by many hundreds of its customers and the withdrawal of \$8,000,000 cash. It is understood that the closing followed the payment of \$1,500,000 demanded by one institution.

In spite of the strenuous efforts made by the Directors of the company at the all-night meeting on Monday night at Skerry's, following President Hursey's abrupt resignation and the refusal of the Bank of Commerce longer to clear for the Knickerbocker, the measures finally adopted, including the attempt to raise a \$15,000,000 guarantee fund, were unsuccessful.

What J. P. Morgan Said.

The closing of the bank, which some Directors still hoped up to a late hour last night was only temporary, although such hopes were entirely abandoned by other Directors, led to complete demoralization upon the Stock Exchange, where Mayer & Co. went down and prices crumbled without resistance under an avalanche of selling orders. It necessitated the formation of a big money pool by the leading Clearing House banks, helped out by the loaning of \$4,000,000 of Government money, brought Secretary of the Treasury Cortelyou hurriedly to this city, and led at once to conferences of Knickerbocker officers and the leading bankers of New York at Morgan & Co.'s offices, with Mr. Morgan presiding. The sole aim was to devise immediate plans to meet the situation thus created.

When Mr. Morgan left his office late in the evening at the close of this gathering he made this statement to the waiting reporters:

"We are doing everything we can, as fast as we can, but nothing has yet crystallized."

Asked whether any outside efforts were being made to enable the Knickerbocker Trust Company to resume Mr. Morgan said:

"I don't know anything about that; am not talking about that."

Those present at the conference at 8

Appendix

B

on Committee would be composed only of the Secretaries of the Treasury and Agriculture and the Controller of the Treasury and Comptroller of the Currency. These men

This provision, like many others, went through several metamorphoses during the progress of the bill through the two houses and the conference committee, and its meaning effect in this regard was brought to the attention of the members of the Administration most largely interested in the legislation. According to the information of local bankers yesterday, those who brought up the point were informed that it was not only open to this interpretation, but that it was the intention of the Administration so to interpret it; in other words, that the provision was there with a distinct purpose to compel the retirement of private funds from national bank boards.

Matter had received attention by the private bankers of Boston, the local bankers said, and members of several houses there expected to terminate their official connection with national banks in the near future. One such member, it was said, had already presented his resignation from the boards of banks of which he was a Director.

With the Currency bill finally passed and uncertainties as to particular provisions ended, bankers in this city were disposed yesterday to drop their criticisms and to turn their attention to points involved in the practical establishment of the system. Some time ago a special committee was appointed by the Clearing House to study the practical workings of the bill, but after considerable investigation had been done changes in the bill became so frequent that the committee postponed indefinitely the conclusion of its labors and its report to the Clearing House Association. It is expected that this committee will now finish its work on the basis of the actual provisions of the law, and that a full meeting of the association will be called to discuss the points involved. Frank A. Vanderbilt, President of the

for Owen said, "to avoid making the bill a party measure. But I found it was impossible. The bill opened up a party measure first, then upholding it on one side with a single Democrat. When I saw that as a non-partisan measure nothing could be accomplished, I did the only thing I could do. I made it a party measure, and the results have justified me. In conference, if Democrats had joined with Republicans to vote down their colleagues, I would have considered it a party measure. The vote was taken at 2:30 when Mr. Owen ended, and the engrossed bill was rushed to the House for the Speaker's signature. The bill opened in the Senate had agreed to the House resolution providing a recess until noon of January 1, and had gone into executive session.

It was received in secret session at 10:30. Vice President signed it before the doors were open. Adjournment was taken with the doors still closed, and when they were thrown open, it was found that only four Senators remained on the floor. Most of them had already caught trains for home. Speaker Clark placed his name to the engrossed bill at 13 minutes to 3 o'clock. In the presence of the House.

After its late session of last night the House had taken an adjournment until 2:30 o'clock this afternoon to await the acceptance of the conference report by the Senate. When it met the action of the Senate had not been so much as a message over to the House and a recess was taken until 3 o'clock. While the House was in recess the bill, in its final engrossed form, bearing the signature of Vice President Marshall, was received at 13 minutes to 3 o'clock. As the House had recessed until 3 o'clock orders were given to employees to turn the hands of the clock over the Speaker's desk forward twelve minutes, to make the time 3 o'clock, and the engrossed copy of the bill was then signed.

Clark Congratulates Country.
Speaker Clark, after signing the bill, issued a statement as follows:
"Most assuredly the fact that, at last, the Currency bill is upon the statute books; for in such matters of great path and moment, it is the uncertainty that turns—even where a bill might be the sum total of human wisdom on any particular subject. Now, all men of intelligence will know very soon what the Currency bill contains, and what it means, and can conduct their affairs accordingly."
"My own judgment is that it will be satisfactory to the country. A high degree—at least I hope so. The fact that a large number of Republicans and Progressives voted for our bill is proof positive that the country is well pleased with the bill."
"So many of them so voted that it may not improperly be denominated a non-partisan law. We certainly have ample cause for self-congratulation. In nine months we have passed a bill amending all the tariff schedules and a thoroughly revised and overhauled currency system."
"Fair and so wise that even politicians have way to such an extent that many Republicans and Progressives vote."
"Our two bills are excellent samples of constructive legislation. The tariff bill is working well, and now that the Currency bill is removed, I hope and believe that the country is entering upon a long period of prosperity."
"Every man in any way responsible for the passage of two bills is to be congratulated on the results."
"Right to the point—it is always ready for you in a KOLI-N-SOOK Propelling Pen."

for either the national or State banks, as they do with the trust companies. Disregarding the reduction to 5 per cent. in the case of these deposits, the same reserve of \$229,300,750 would suffice on a basis of 18 per cent. for deposits of \$1,773,424,000, or for \$2,000,000,000 more than the actual deposits. In other words, it would make it possible for the banks to loan in deposit form practically \$200,000,000 in addition. This situation, which, of course, is modified by interior banks, made necessary by changes in their own reserve requirements.

Increases Reserve Requirements.
As against this reduction there is an immediate effect in the direction of increasing the reserve requirements, or rather of reducing the extent to which their present funds may be counted as reserves. This is in respect to the fund now maintained in the Treasury Department for the redemption of national bank notes, which amounts to 5 per cent. of the circulation outstanding. Under the national banking act this 5 per cent. fund could be counted as part of a bank's reserve, but the new act specifically provides that this shall not be done hereafter. This clause takes immediate effect, and the result will be that the New York City banks cannot count as reserve the redemption funds maintained by them, which at the end of last week amounted to \$2,438,000, and were included in their reserves. For the whole country the amount so removed from reserves, on the basis of the last reports to the Controller of the Currency on Oct. 21, is \$35,808,000.

The distinction between demand and time deposits in the reserve requirements is likely, in the view of some bankers, to bring about a conversion of some portion of the deposits held by the banks, in order to take advantage of the reduction from 25 per cent. to a 5 per cent. reserve.

"Corporations that keep large accounts," said one banker, "might enter into agreements with their banks that they would not withdraw, say, 50 per cent. of their customary balances without more than thirty days' notice, which would make that 50 per cent. practically a time deposit. The bank could pay interest on this portion, for it could well afford to do so in view of the pressure of four-fifths of the cash now held against it. Commercial houses that borrow from banks on their paper often enter into agreements to leave some part of the proceeds—for instance, 20 per cent.—on deposit, and these balances could readily be put in the form of time deposits, with the advantage of a lower rate."

It probably will be necessary, under the new rules, for the Clearing House to accept checks of the Federal Reserve bank in payment of debit balances at the Clearing House, as the amount of cash the banks will be required to keep in vault may at times be insufficient to cover the amount of those institutions that handle large transfers of funds at various times. It is not unusual for a bank with \$100,000,000 in deposits to have a balance of \$100,000,000 after the day's clearings. It would be required to have only \$5,000,000 cash in vault, and if it had no more than required, would be far short of cash enough to meet the debit at the Clearing House. It would have at least \$7,000,000 in the Federal Reserve bank, however, and could draw on this by check.

EXPECTS BUSINESS REVIVAL.

Irving T. Bush Sees the Beginning of a Cycle of Prosperity.

Certainty that the new currency law will result in a healthy revival of business and, in general, work great good to the country's international relations was expressed last night by President Irving T. Bush of the Bush Terminal Company. He returned from an extensive trip through Europe on Monday, where he studied the financial and commercial situation. Mr. Bush, who headed the currency agitation of the Merchants' Association and was associated with other bodies in similar movements, says that the financial machine which President Wilson's ability to steady every wavering prop in the commercial and economic structure.

"The standing of the Currency bill by President Wilson I become an optimist," said Mr. Bush. "This does not mean that we may expect a great expansion of American business to-morrow. But it does mean, in my opinion, the beginning of the next cycle of national prosperity. Tariff uncertainty is over, and the currency measure, after the long establishment of the system, will put this country in a position to take its place as an international money power and will give us the financial machine which will make us nearly independent of foreign countries as it is possible for any nation to be."

We do not want a boom here, but we hope for a restoration of normal conditions and an opportunity for American industry to expand. President Wilson has done for the country what it has clamored for—a real revival of its tariff laws—and has been the first President to appreciate the vital importance to the future prosperity of the country of an adequate banking and currency system. A man who has carried through in less than ten months these two great measures, has created in the country a sane and intelligent general legislative programme which will not injure legitimate business."

Unrealizable in 1907.
They were not insolvent. They had plenty of good assets, including millions of dollars' worth of commercial paper, most of it not yet due. There was no commercial paper market outside of the banks themselves, and their depositors would not accept these obligations of others, no matter how good they might be at maturity, in lieu of the currency to which they were entitled. It was impossible to turn the assets of the banks into currency, but the strain was relieved to some extent by agreement among the banks to take a sort of currency based upon these assets in settlement among themselves.

At the end of each day's clearings some banks have credit balances and others debit balances, which offset each other. Those banks on which demands were heaviest, or of which the reserves had been drawn down to the lowest point, were enabled by agreement to take their paper to the Clearing House and obtain on its security Clearing House certificates, an ample margin of safety being retained, and all the paper being passed on by a committee of the shrewdest bankers in town. These certificates were made good in settlement of debit balances at the Clearing House and passed current among the banks, but not among the public.

Following the panic there was a widespread demand among bankers and business men for a reform of the system in such a way as to give elasticity to the currency by making it possible for the banks, without resort to extrajudicial methods, such as the issue of Clearing House certificates, to obtain currency to meet the needs of their short-term assets. Even before the panic, in the early months of 1907, efforts at legislation had begun with the intention of giving the banks the power to issue currency in the form of short-term bills, but the country was not ready then or for a long time afterward to give its serious attention to the problem.

In the summer of 1907, after the panic Senator Aldrich again sought remedial legislation, while in the lower house proposals of a radically different nature were brought forward. It proved impossible in the state of public opinion at that time to make any thorough-going reform, and in the end only an emergency measure was passed, and after a long period of delay a long-standing crisis in the effort to defeat this Aldrich-Vreeland bill that Senator La Follette made a new record for a filibustering speech that covered parts of several days.

Vreeland Bill a Dead Letter.

The Aldrich-Vreeland bill, which was afterwards re-enacted, is still on the statute books, but has never been put to use, partly because no such crisis as that of 1907 has since arisen, and partly because its machinery is cumbersome and its restrictions rigid. In a general way, it was intended to provide the element of elasticity that was lacking in the national bank note currency. There was no effort to displace that currency, but to superimpose an additional element, which should be elastic in the fullest sense—that should come into being when occasion arose, and that should automatically be canceled through the imposition of a tax which should prevent it from being kept out after the need had passed.

This was followed up by provision for the appointment of a National Monetary Commission to make a comprehensive study of European systems and to test the theories of experts in this country and abroad with a view to devising an entirely new system. With the Aldrich-Vreeland act as a safety valve in case of a sudden crisis, the plan adopted was to proceed calmly and at leisure to formulate the best possible scheme. It was also recognized that a great part of the work of the commission would be to arouse an intelligent public interest in the subject and to obtain the support of the business men of the country, who were the greatest sufferers on the panic.

Many months were spent in investigations, many volumes of information were published, and much was done through public meetings and the press to cultivate public sentiment. Senator Aldrich was chairman of the commission and continued in that capacity after his retirement from the Senate. It was his avowed ambition to become the father of money, of the banking and currency system for this country.

The Aldrich Bill Killed.

The report was finally submitted to Congress with proposed legislation which took the name of the Aldrich bill. This in itself was unfortunate for the cause of currency reform, inasmuch as Senator Aldrich was regarded as the very flower of that school of political thought against which the tide of progressivism had already for some time been rising. The bill was fought, regardless of its merits, because it was the Aldrich bill. It was fought also on its merits because of its proposal for a central bank, against which were raked up all the sins of the first and second banks of the United States and the abuse of power for political ends with which their names were connected.

The thing above all others that killed the Aldrich bill was the pronounced sentiment of the public against not only a central bank, but a central bank managed and operated by the bankers of the country. It was also attacked as unsound because it permitted the banks to hold as reserve money the very notes that were to be issued against their assets.

The American Bankers' Association, in its report to the National Monetary Commission, said:

together by a Federal Reserve Board, thus diluting the concentration of reserves which was felt to be a strong safeguard against panic. This Federal Reserve Board, while in a sense a central bank, was not a central bank in the strictest sense, for it was directed from that provided for by the Aldrich bill in that the board had no bank to operate and no mechanism to bring and keep the central organization in active touch with the banking functions of the country. Instead of being under the control of bankers, as in the Aldrich plan, it was to be constituted of political appointees, three members of the cabinet, and the other four named by the President, only one of whom was required to be a man of banking experience.

Bankers Fought the Glass Bill.

While the banking principles of the bill were similar to those of the Aldrich plan, these changes were strongly resisted first by the Currency Commission, then by a conference of bankers from all parts of the country, and finally by the convention of the American Bankers' Association at Boston in October.

The Administration stood firm, however, on the principle of governmental control, and the bankers came to see that it was useless to oppose the measure. They continued their objections, however, to a purely political board, to the compulsion on the national banks of holding the system and subscribing capital of the reserve banks or ceasing to be national banks, and to the issue of the new notes "purporting to be Treasury notes" and redeemable by the government. Many other provisions that were considered unsound from an abstract banking standpoint were also attacked, and of these a good many have been corrected.

No heed was paid to the more general objections, and the opposition of the bankers in the last few weeks had become almost hopeless. While the bill was under consideration in the Senate something of a sensation was occasioned by the presentation of an entirely new plan by Frank A. Vanderlip of the National City Bank. This called for a central bank, under full governmental control, owned by the public through subscription to its stock. Despite the support it gained, the suggestion came too late, and President Wilson let it be known that the Owen-Glass bill, in its structural features, would not be changed.

Bankers Accept the Inevitable.

There was a change in banking sentiment, too, after the Boston convention, and many bankers said privately that they would be content to accept the bill as having good features, far outweighing the bad ones, to which exception had been taken. Some of the banks that had fought the bill hardest, seeing that it was foreordained by the Administration, stopped talking of taking out State charters and said, though not publicly, that they were ready to join, if not to lead, the procession into the Federal reserve system.

The member banks would pay six to eight per cent. on deposits in excess of one-sixth in six months. This gives a pull-up capital of \$3,175,000, which would be added about \$1,500,000 of Government funds, deposited in the Federal Reserve Bank, making a total of \$4,675,000 cash, of which funds could be used for discount. The relative proportion of subject to the Federal Reserve Bank is as follows: The national banks, 50 per cent. for the country banks, 25 per cent. for the reserve city banks, and 18 per cent. for the central reserve city banks. The capital and surplus of banks entering the system, and the relative proportion of the capital and surplus prospective member banks in the centers throughout the country, are carefully considered by the bank organization committee. The currency law makes it mandatory that this organization committee be organized and that it have regard to the volume and customary course of business (but these districts are not necessarily to be co-terminous with an old district).

The only cities in which the surplus of national banks, in excess of \$25,000,000, with the adequate capital and surplus of such located by them, are as follows: Boston, over \$15,000,000; New York, over \$25,000,000; Philadelphia, \$15,000,000; Pittsburgh, over \$10,000,000; Chicago, over \$10,000,000; St. Louis, \$10,000,000; and San Francisco, over \$10,000,000.

If these seven cities were chosen, the minimum and five per cent. of the surplus of the banks in the districts with regard to the volume and customary course of business (but these districts are not necessarily to be co-terminous with an old district).

The next largest national banks, according to the aggregate capital and surplus in their national bank year, were:

Baltimore, \$20,000,000;	Wash. \$10,000,000;	New Orleans, \$10,000,000;	San Francisco, \$10,000,000;
St. Louis, \$10,000,000;	Chicago, \$10,000,000;	Cincinnati, \$10,000,000;	Indianapolis, \$10,000,000;
Detroit, \$10,000,000;	Milwaukee, \$10,000,000;	St. Paul, \$10,000,000;	Kansas City, \$10,000,000;
St. Omaha, \$10,000,000;	Denver, \$10,000,000;	Los Angeles, \$10,000,000;	Seattle, \$10,000,000;
San Diego, \$10,000,000;	Portland, \$10,000,000;	San Francisco, \$10,000,000;	San Francisco, \$10,000,000;

In this second list there are cities, which, with the seven cities in national bank centers noted above, would give a twenty-three national banking. The same fifteen more than the number of Federal Reserve cities may be designated. Consequently this list before them, the new Organization Committee to throw out not less than five, nor more than fifteen.

There is no doubt that New York and Chicago will be designated as national centers. Pittsburgh, Boston, St. Louis are also regarded as really certain to be chosen. Other selections will be made, naturally influenced by the fact whether the Organization Committee to establish eight reserve or twelve in the beginning. It is believed here that the number of cities between eight and twelve depend somewhat upon the applicable banks throughout the country.

Juicy Cigarettes

The presentation of a box of Juicy Cigarettes, imported from Porto Rico, reflects the giver. It is a brand of unique quality, to discriminating smokers who buy the size regulating the price.

IMPORTED FROM PORTO RICO

Box of 50		
Coqueta Size	\$2.50	Co
Panetela Size	3.00	Inv
Saratoga Size	3.33	Ca
Pacifico Size	3.00	

Box of 10	
Perfeccionado Size	\$1.50
Exceptionalle Size	2.5
Knickerbocker Size	2.5
Bismarck Size	3.0

Other brands at prices ranging from \$1.00 to \$25.50 a box.

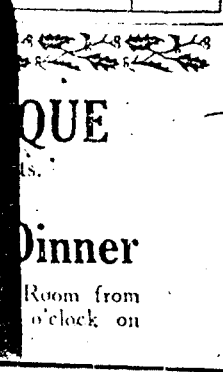
At all Stores

Dinner
Room from
o'clock on

Three applications have been received from national banks in the State of New York outside of New York City. Two national banks of New York City have applied—the Harriman, with a capital and surplus of \$1,000,000, and the Gotham, with a capital and surplus of \$300,000. The Hudson Trust Company of New York City also telegraphed its application. The up-State banks that have applied are the First National Bank of Syracuse with a capital and surplus of \$750,000.

Dr. and Mrs. Beattle Have Narrow
Escape When Locust Falls.

Within the past few days
been rumors that corporate
have been sued by the Govern-
ment under the Sherman law, or wh-
are being investigated as a
no probable prosecution, as I
over each other, figuratively
in the effort to obtain infor-
mation from the Department of Ju-
stice that this is the case. They
inquiries have been made,
that combinations are anxious
to know how they may conduct
business without danger of Fed-
eration, but in no case, it was
stated, had any corporation
willingness to reorganize
paid down by the attorney.
I even admit that their affa-
ir adjustment. The New H-
road is a possible exception
condition, as the negotiations
between its representatives a-
torney General have all be-
low to the reorganization of
corporation system.



After Theatre
Supper, Dancing

QUE

Dinner

Room from
o'clock on

Concert by
Holmes Or-

HOTEL
RESA

4th to 125th St.
ly Fireproof.

side Rooms.

1 bath, \$1.00 per day.
2 bath, \$2.00 per day.
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Hotel Breslin
Broadway at 29th St.
Dixie Room

Toothsome dishes of
"prepared by real
you can get them
Room. Ever ready
our home cake, South
just as delicious and
the pleasures of the
"crust."
Luncheon, 11 to 3, 65c.
Dinner, 3 to 6, 85c.
Supper, 6 to 10, 75c.
Theatre Suppers

HOTEL
RAY
112TH ST.

Homelike
furnished
15 minutes
street
up to seven
American and
and rooms
affairs
APPLICATION

Hotel Royal
112TH ST.
Dinner
P. M., \$1.00.

Three room apart-
ment, including
bath, kitchen, and
dining room.
Morning side.

Eleven trust companies, of which four
are in Texas, one in Tennessee, one in
Virginia, one in Maryland, two in Mis-
souri, one in New York, one in Illinois,
and one in the District of Columbia, ap-
plied. Five State banks applied, of
which one each is in California, South
Carolina, Texas, Missouri, and Wiscon-
sin. Two savings banks made applica-
tion, and both are situated in California.

The New York Applications.

Three applications have been received
from national banks in the State of New
York outside of New York City. Two na-
tional banks of New York City have ap-
plied—the Harriman, with a capital and
surplus of \$1,000,000, and the Gotham,
with a capital and surplus of \$300,000.
The Hudson Trust Company of New
York City also telegraphed its applica-
tion. The up-State banks that have ap-
plied are the First National of Syracuse,
with a capital and surplus of \$700,000;
the First National of Cooperstown,
with \$250,000 capital and surplus, and
the First National of Poughkeepsie,
with \$100,000 capital and surplus.

All the national banks of Denver, with
the exception of the First National,
have telegraphed applications.

Telegrams were received from all six
of the national banks in Atlanta, Ga.,
seeking membership. The banking and
commercial interests of Atlanta are im-
mense, and it is anxious to have that city
designated as one of the regional re-
serve bank cities.

The largest bank thus far applying to
the Continental and Commercial Na-
tional of Chicago, of which George M.
Reynolds is President, its capital and
surplus total \$25,500,000. The only other
Chicago bank forwarding an applica-
tion is the National Bank of the Repub-
lic, with \$3,000,000 capital and surplus.

One national bank of New Orleans has
applied—the Whitney Central, the largest
bank in Louisiana, with a capital
and surplus of \$4,000,000.

Baltimore's Generous Response.

Eleven national banks of Baltimore
have telegraphed applications, with a
combined capital and surplus of \$12-
\$13,750. Five Baltimore national banks
are yet to be heard from. The Munsey
Trust Company of Baltimore also ap-
plied.

The second largest national bank seek-
ing to be admitted is the Shawmut of
Boston, of which William A. Gaston is
President. Its capital and surplus ag-
gregate \$15,000,000.

The Grand Rapids National City Bank
of Grand Rapids, Mich., telegraphed
congratulations to Secretary McAdoo
and asked to be admitted to member-
ship. It is the largest national bank in
that part of Michigan, with a capital
and surplus of \$1,200,000.

All the Clearing House banks of Kan-
sas City, Mo., and Kansas City, Kan.,
applied. Four of the eight national
banks of St. Louis did likewise. One of
these is the Bank of Commerce, the
largest national bank in St. Louis, with
a capital and surplus of \$12,000,000. The
Mercantile National Bank, of which
Festus J. Wade is President, also ap-
plied. Its capital and surplus total \$2-
\$3,000,000. The Third National, with \$1-
\$2,000,000 capital and surplus, and the Na-
tional Bank of Wellston of St. Louis,
with \$75,000 capitalization, as well as
the St. Louis Trust Company and the
Union Trust and Savings Com-
pany of St. Louis, applied.

The National Bank of Trenton,
N. J., with a capital
and surplus of \$800,000, asked to be in-
cluded.

Showing from Ohio.

National banks of Cincinnati,
understood to be a candidate
as a Federal reserve city,
membership. Their capital and
surplus aggregate \$20,200,000. All of the

Continued on Page 2.

which will continue until Congress re-
assembles on Jan. 12. Secretary Bryan
is at his winter home at Miami, Fla.;
Secretary Garrison will spend Christmas
Day with his brother at Merchantville,
N. J., and later will spend a few days
with Mrs. Garrison at Atlantic City.
Secretary Daniels will dine in Wash-
ington, but will later spend a few days
in Raleigh, N. C.

All other Cabinet officers will dine at
their homes here with the exception of
Attorney General McReynolds, who will
spend Christmas Day with his mother
at Elkton, Ky.

TREE CRASHES ON AUTO.

Dr. and Mrs. Beattie Have Narrow
Escape When Locust Falls.

Dr. J. H. Beattie and his wife were
riding in the front seat of their auto-
mobile from Hastings to Johns Ferry at
5 o'clock yesterday afternoon, when a
locust tree sixty feet tall, which stood
in a row of locusts several feet above
the roadway, suddenly toppled and fell
with a crash across the highway. The
trunk struck the rear set of the auto-
mobile, crumpling it flat against the
road and stopping the machine in its
tracks.

The abrupt halt threw Dr. and Mrs.
Beattie back against the rear of their
seats and they were clubbed and
scratched by some of the large branches,
but neither was seriously hurt.

The embankment in which the locust
was rooted had been undermined by the
rain of Tuesday night and the tree had
stood tottering through the day. En-
gineers were sent out late in the after-
noon to make sure of the security of
other locusts in the same row.

ASKS PRAYER FOR A REUNION

End of Family Differences, a Christ-
mas Text.

An old man, upon whose face the
years had left their traces, and whose
manner showed the refinement of an up-
bringing in an old-fashioned American
home, walked with rather hesitant step
into THE TIMES office yesterday. With
some embarrassment, he handed in a
letter, explaining that he was one of
the two persons referred to in it, and
that he wanted to enlist the help of all
the silent prayers on Christmas day to
effect a reunion which, somehow, had
defied his bungling human efforts
throughout the many years.

The letter, written in fine but slightly
tremulous handwriting, was headed "A
Merry and Happy Christmas," and said:

To the Editor of The New York Times:
Upon this day, the most universally cele-
brated of all the days of the year—the
birthday of Christ, born into this world
that through his life and intercession all
men should be saved—Christ is love. There
are in this city two, the last of a large
family of children, native citizens; one 70
years old, the other in the last decade of
the eighties. They have been estranged for
many years, although repeated efforts have
been made by one that a reunion as of
childhood days should take place. These
efforts have been made in writing and by
repeated calls—the last on Sunday, the 21st
inst. All have failed.
Is it asking too much that churchgoers
upon this Christmas in their silent prayers
shall pray that family differences of all
shall be forgotten?
S. T. L.

The old man left the letter, thanked
THE TIMES for publishing it, and walked
with lighter step out of the office.

Greater Sail Area for Defender.

BRISTOL, R. I., Dec. 24.—The Vanderbilt
yacht now building here as a candidate for
the defense of America's Cup is to have a
greater sail area than was at first proposed;
it was learned to-night. That is said to be
the reason for the change in plans already an-
nounced, by which additional ballast is to
be carried on the keel, instead of inside
the yacht. The extent of the proposed sail
increase is not announced.

been rumors that corporations, who
have been sued by the Government,
under the Sherman law, or whose af-
airs are being investigated as a prelimi-
nary to probable prosecution, are turn-
ing over each other, figuratively speak-
ing, in the effort to obtain immunity.
Officers of the Department of Justice
think that this is the case. They admit
inquiries have been made, indicating
that combinations are anxious to as-
tain how they may conduct their busi-
ness without danger of Federal pro-
secution, but in no case, it was stated
to-night, had any corporation shown
willingness to reorganize along the
road shown by the Attorney General,
even admit that their affairs re-
quire readjustment. The New Haven
road is a possible exception to the
condition, as the negotiations condu-
ced between its representatives and the
Attorney General have all been with
view to the reorganization of that
transportation system.

At the same time, the situation from
Administration viewpoint is very
encouraging. President Wilson inter-
prets his remarks last night to those who
questioned his approval of the new cur-
law to be interpreted as an express
willingness on the part of the Admin-
istration to meet the business inter-
est half way in any desire on their part
to arrange their affairs and method
operation so as to conform to the
of the Department of Justice. The
invitation will be accepted some of
do not doubt, but just at this time
do not feel justified in saying that
inquiries received from corpora-
tions should be taken as direct offers to
the Government's virtual demands.

Shoe Machinery Officials Sail

BOSTON, Dec. 24.—When asked
today concerning a report that the
Government and the United Shoe Mach-
ine Company were negotiating for a
settlement of the dissolution suit against
United, Sidney W. Winslow, Pres-
ident of the company, said he had heard
negotiations were under way, but
referred inquiries to his counsel, C.
P. Choate, attorney for the com-
pany, said that he preferred not to discuss
the matter.

WARRANTS OUT FOR CO

Countess Santa Eulalia Ch
Him with Criminal Libel

Special to The New York Times

PHILADELPHIA, Dec. 24.—G.
Stetson and his mother, the Co-
Countess Santa Eulalia, (formerly Mrs. Jo
Stetson,) have obtained warrants for
arrest of M. Blair Coan on the charge
of criminal libel. This action is based
on interviews alleged to be false and
calumnious, given by Coan to the Philad-
elphia newspapers and printed this morn-
ing.
Indignant at the assertions of
who is an investigator and former
paper man of this city, that he
been employed by Mr. Stetson to
a revolution in Portugal, so that
might become Queen of that
the Countess entered an emphatic
to the charges to-day.

"I am astonished that any one
sufficient interest in this case to
tell me about it," said the Co-
Countess. "It is the most ridiculous thing
I have ever heard of. I should laugh at it
if it were not that the Count is
to have plotted against his own
The Count laughed and dismissed
charges when we spoke about the
night. Every one who knows his
izes that he is not the kind of
plot for a revolution or for an
unpleasant. The Count is for peace
good order, not for a revolution
organized government.

"Personally, I am much grieved
know so much publicity has been
to the statements of that man,
nothing whatever about my son's
relations with him, if, indeed, he is
business with him, but I do not
he would ever suggest such a
that man spoke of.

"The Count is interested in
solely to promote its welfare and
happiness of its people."

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